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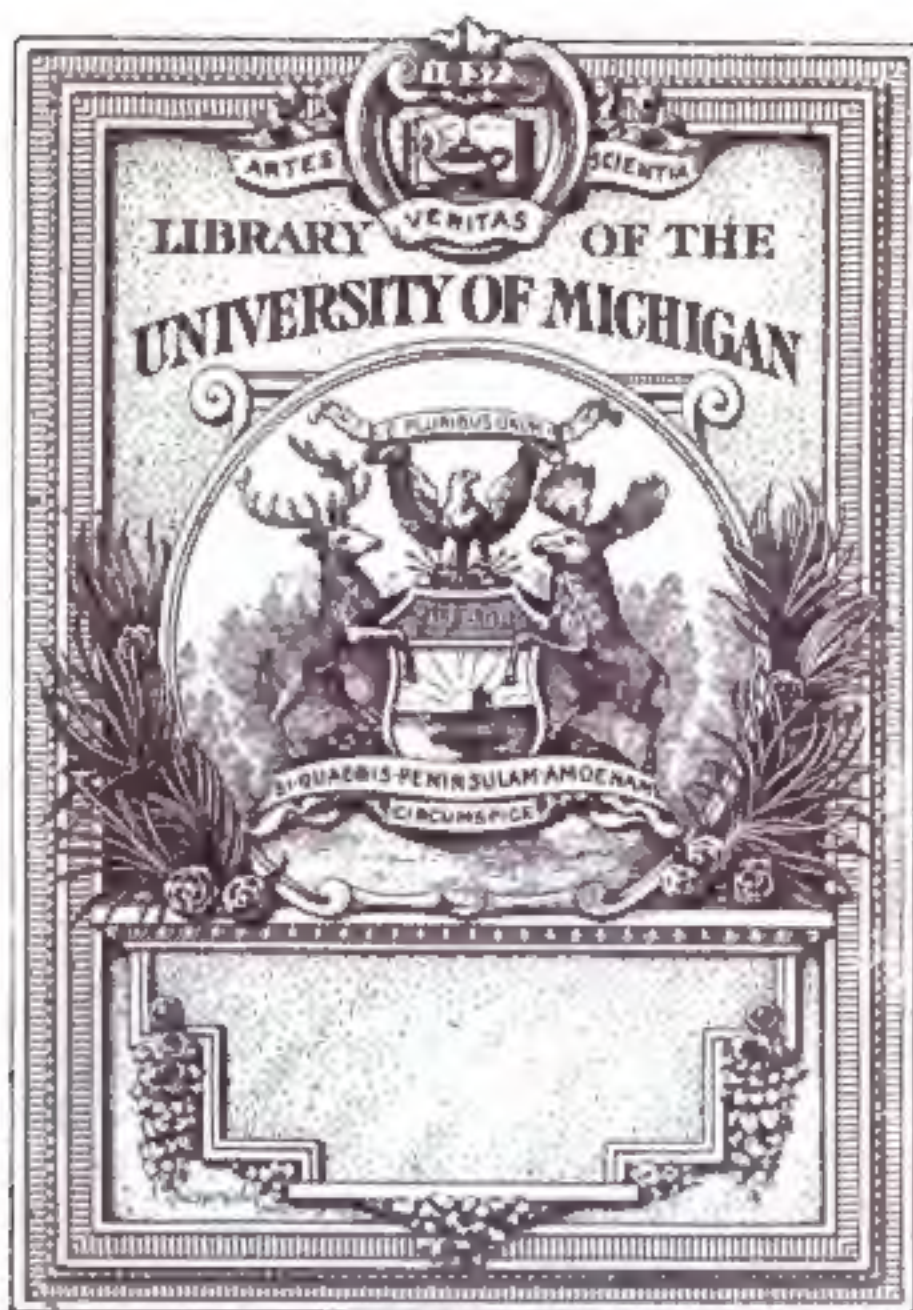
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FOREIGN VOYAGES AND TRAVELS;

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OF

EMINENT CONTINENTAL TRAVELLERS.

WITH SEVERAL ENGRAVINGS.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED, A

RETROSPECT OF GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES.

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GENERAL VIEW
OF
THE MOST IMPORTANT GEOGRAPHICAL
RESEARCHES AND DISCOVERIES.

AMONG the newest geographical discoveries, those made by Dr. Oudney, Major Denham, and Lieutenant Clapperton, in the interior of Africa, since the year 1822, deserve the first place.

We mentioned in our preceding volume that the three travellers had set out from Tripolis, in February, 1822, to commence their journey into the interior of Africa, and that they had arrived in April, of the same year, at Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan. They remained here seven months, and spent this period in making excursions into the different parts of that country. In November the same year, they continued their journey to the south, under the escort of 300 Arabian horsemen, commanded by Boo Khaloom, a friend of the Pacha of Tripolis, under whose protection they had made their previous

journey to Mourzouk. From Tegerby to the southern frontiers of Fezzan, they travelled through a dreary waste, and, in an extent of four or five hundred miles, they met with only a few villages inhabited by the Tibbos. They are tributary to the sultan of Fezzan, on account of the wells which he maintains in these parts. The travellers, who performed the whole journey in the European dress, were treated by them in a very friendly manner. The larger villages lie on isolated naked hills, which rise from the desert, like rocks from the ocean.

On the 4th of February, 1823, they reached Lari, the northern frontier town of the kingdom of Bornou, in $14^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and nearly under the same meridian as Mourzouk. At this part, the country all at once assumed a better aspect, and, in the vicinity of the town, the travellers saw a large lake, called the Tsad. This lake extended so far on the east side of their route, that in their farther progress, which was directly south, they had it almost constantly in view for seven days. It has a number of bays and creeks, and also islands overgrown with thicket and high reeds, among which elephants were feeding. They could nowhere descry the eastern shores of this lake. Its extent from north to south, as far as they became

acquainted with it, was 220 miles. The shores were very low, but at a distance of one or two miles, a wall of sand, 40 to 50 feet high, ran parallel with them, which doubtless had at some period formed the bank of the lake, and perhaps still does so, during the rainy season. The whole of the surrounding country was covered with villages, among which they noticed a larger one, called Bourwa, which has ramparts of earth, clean houses, and well-dressed inhabitants. About sixty miles to the south of Lari, the travellers crossed the river Yaou, which, coming from the west, emptied itself into the lake; it was here about a hundred feet broad, and ran one mile an hour between high sandy banks. This river is indisputably the Niger. There is on its banks at this place a town surrounded with walls, likewise called Yaou, and many villages.

Another town, lying farther southwards, is Kouka, ($12^{\circ} 51'$ north latitude, and $11^{\circ} 27'$ east longitude of Paris) it is the residence of the Sheik Schumin el Kalmi, a common Arab of Fezzan, who, by his courage, ability, and engaging manners, raised himself to the dignity of Sovereign of Bornou; about twenty years since he was only a Fighi, or school-master at Fezzan. He acquired the reputation of a learned inter-

preter of the Koran, and obtained the surname of Shiek-el-Koran. At the head of a small body of armed men, he entered Bornou, which he freed from the incursions of a savage people called Fellata; he restored order and the Mahometan religion; the gratitude of the public offered him the title of sultan, but he wisely retained the dignity of Sheik, and placed a descendant of the native sultans on the throne, to whom he outwardly does homage. He can bring into the field fifty thousand men, two thirds of whom are cavalry. Shortly before the arrival of the travellers, he had captured, in an expedition to the east, above three thousand slaves, four thousand oxen, and five thousand camels, which he divided with the sultan. When the gentlemen were approaching Kouka, the Sheik sent them an escort of four thousand cavalry, and a corps of negroes of his body guard, to receive them, and in company of whom they made their entry into the town. The Sheik, after having read the letter of recommendation from the Pacha of Tripolis, received them very kindly, and, after a short audience, they were conducted to the house prepared for them.

D. Oudney waited on the sultan, who resides at Birnie, eighteen miles to the south-south-east of Kouka. The three travellers wished to continue

their discoveries beyond the kingdom of Bornou. But the Sheik declared that he could not let them travel alone, as he was answerable for them to his cousin, the Pacha of Tripolis. An opportunity however occurred for Major Denham to go beyond the frontiers of Bornou. Boo-Khaloom, the captain of the escort, resolved to undertake an expedition farther to the south, to plunder the inhabitants according to the custom of the native African tribes. Denham earnestly entreated to be permitted to accompany him, and the Sheik consented, though unwillingly. The expedition, consisting of 5000 men, proceeded southwards, and after six days' march reached Mora, the capital of the sultan of Mandara, lying in a valley at the foot of a lofty chain of mountains, 170 miles from Kouka. This chain, consisting of granite, and covered with trees, is said to extend thirty-six or forty days' journey south-west, and at its most elevated points is inhabited by the Kindies, a savage tribe, who are under the protection of the sultan of Mandara. In the vallies, there are several towns inhabited by Mahometans. From this place Boo-Khaloom went farther to the south to attack the mighty tribe of the Fellatas, who live about 230 miles to the south of Kouka; but they

bravely defended their wood and huts, and the assailants sustained a terrible defeat. Boo Khaloom himself lost his life by the poisoned arrows of the Fellatas, and Major Denham, wounded and totally plundered, had great difficulty in returning to Bornou with the defeated army. He had been as he supposes beyond the ninth parallel, or 300 miles from Old Calabar on the west coast of Africa.

During this unfortunate expedition, the two other travellers made an excursion to the river Shary, which, coming from the south, flows into Lake Tsad, and is 90 miles to the south of Kouka. It is said to take its rise in the above named granite chain, and runs in a northerly direction towards the sea, into which it empties itself in five or six branches. It flows one mile per hour ; it is a mile in breadth, and contains a number of flat islands.

It appears from these recent discoveries that the kingdom of Bornou lies from 3 to 400 miles farther south, and from 5 to 600 more to the west, than it has generally been laid down on the maps of Africa, since the time of d'Anville. The lake of Tsad on the other hand seems to occupy the space hitherto assigned to the supposed lake or morass of Wangara. Our travel-

lers, like Burckhardt, Ritchie, Lyon, &c. were not able to learn any thing of a lake of that name.

Messrs. Denham and Clapperton having happily returned to Europe, the problems relative to the course of the great rivers in the interior of Africa, which have given birth to so many discussions and hypotheses, have been at length solved. The result of their labours terminates, with respect to the principal questions, the long series of researches commenced by Mungo Park, and continued by Horneman, Seetzen, Jackson, Ritchie, Lyon, Belzoni, and others.

The river which passes before the port of Timbuctoo, after having made great windings towards the west and east, flows in the direction of south-east and south, traverses marshes and plains as far as Benin, where it empties itself into the gulph of the same name, which forms part of the Atlantic Ocean.

The great lake of Tsad, in the kingdom of Bornou, receives two rivers: the one called Yaou, coming from the west and north-west: the other Shary, flowing direct from the south. The former of these rivers is not a continuation of the river of Timbuctoo, or of the Joliba; the second comes from an elevated plateau, where the White Nile (the western branch of the Nile

of Egypt) has its sources, or at least some of them. The lake of Tsad has no visible outlet, and yet its waters are not salt.

Between the basin of Bornou, and that of the river of Timbuctoo, to the north of the kingdom of Benin, are two towns, which Mr. Clapperton visited. Cano is situated in 13° of north latitude, and 9° east longitude of Greenwich. This town has no communication by water with Nyffe on the river of Timbuctoo. Sokkatoo lies in 12° north latitude, and 5° east longitude of Greenwich; it is the residence of a powerful prince of the name of Bello, who, since 1804, has made great conquests, or rather expeditions, into the whole of Soudan, destroyed several towns, and obliged some kings to do him homage. The people whom he governs belong to the race of the Fellata or Phalatja, which extends over a great tract in the interior, and are superior to the other negroes. The travellers, who were well received by Bello, were surprised to see his house filled with English crockery, which he had obtained by the commerce between his country and Benin. He was very desirous of opening a direct communication with England. His country, which abounds in cattle and other produce, is not above 400 English miles from the coast of Guinea.

It was at Sokkatoo that Lieut. Clapperton learnt the course of the great river towards the gulph of Benin. He returned from that place to join Mr. Denham, who had gone round the lake of Tsad; both of them suffered severely from want of provisions in crossing the desert; they arrived at Tripolis in Barbary on the 26th of January, where the English Consul General gave in their honour a splendid fête, at which the Bey of Tripolis was present. They afterwards landed at Leghorn, arrived at Paris on the 21st of May, and reached London about the 1st of June, 1825.

Their expedition has lasted since the year 1821, and they passed three entire years in the interior of Africa. They lost Dr. Oudney and Mr. Toole by the inclemency of the climate. Mr. Tyrwhitt remained at Bornou as English consul, but news has lately been received that he too, has fallen a victim to the climate.

The narrative of these interesting travels has not yet been published, but it has transpired that they met with a nation whose manners, power, and civilization, were totally unknown to the Europeans, and who seemed to unite the Ethiopian with the Arab. Though not very civilized, they are acquainted with various arts. They are expert in horsemanship, and use Mal-

these sword blades, such as formerly belonged to the knights of Malta, and they have, as an order, the Maltese cross in clay.

Great hopes had been founded on the researches of the celebrated Belzoni. He had purposed to penetrate from the bay of Benin into the interior of the continent, and at the end of October, 1823, landed at Cape Coast Castle, whence the commander of the English squadron in those seas, had him conveyed to the English factory, at the mouth of the river of Benin. On board one of the frigates on that station, there happened to be a black seaman, called William Pasco, but whose real name was Abu Buker, a native of Houssa, about 33 years of age, and a man of understanding and good character. This negro left Birnie Kaschna, the capital of Kaschna, in 1805, and had come with a caravan to Annamaboo on the coast of Guinea. Desirous of learning, and full of courage, he had here enlisted in the British naval service. But on learning from slaves who had lately left his native country, that his former mistress was still alive, and, in expectation of his return, remained single, he resolved to go back to his own home. Belzoni became acquainted with him, and could not wish for a better companion, and they determined to begin their journey already in

December. The king of Benin afforded Belzoni all possible assistance, and intended to send an escort with him to Houssa. Belzoni passed for a Moor, a native of the interior, who had been carried, when very young, to England, and was now on the point of returning to his own country. Never was the veil, which had hitherto concealed this part of Africa, so near to being withdrawn. But all at once the melancholy tidings were brought that the persevering Belzoni had been taken ill on the 26th of November, and died on the 3d of December, of the dysentery. Thus has another traveller, intending to penetrate into the interior of this continent, fallen a victim to his enterprising spirit!

Egypt still continues the object of indefatigable research. A young German, Baron Edward Von Rüppel, has been travelling in that country ever since 1822. The accounts which he has sent to Baron Von Zach at Genoa, of his excursion into the north-west of Arabia, in the summer of 1822, contribute to correct and extend in many particulars, our knowledge of that country. He has also explored the Egyptian province of Fayoum. Rüppel has rendered particular service to science, by the astronomical determination of the situation of the places visited by him, and has likewise made many

new and important observations on the wind Chamsin. In the summer of 1823 he undertook a journey to Upper Nubia, and was at Dongola on the 31st of June, where he was however forced to give up the prosecution of his journey, on account of a rebellion which had broken out against Ismael Pacha, son of the viceroy of Egypt. He visited at Meroë the same remains of antiquity which Mr. Waddington has described.

In November, 1823, Mr. Rüppel wrote from New Dongola, that it was his intention to proceed to the conflux of the two great arms of the Nile, the Bahr el Abiad, and the Bahr el As-rack, to go as far as possible along the bank of the first, then to turn to the west, to penetrate into Kordofan, and traversing the great deserts of Haraza and Simrie, to return to Egypt by way of Edabbe. This journey was calculated to occupy eight months. But Mr. Rüppel, when he reached the island of Kurgos, found there were innumerable obstacles to the execution of this plan. Ismael Pacha having been assassinated, Mahomet Bey, the governor of Kordofan, was ordered by the Pacha of Egypt to take the command of the army, and avenge the death of his son. These orders were executed in the most sanguinary manner, so that the whole

country was in a state of confusion, and the traveller was obliged to renounce his journey to Kordofan; he however sent his companion, Mr. Hey, in a boat up the White River, which he ascended above 60 leagues. He describes it as a mass of marshy water, which in winter has no issue; though not dirty, it has a whitish colour, which does not mingle with the waters of the Bahar Asrack at their conflux, but is distinguishable at a considerable distance.

Meantime Mr. Rüppel was still detained in the camp near Kurgos, till the end of February, 1824. Various changes of fortune had taken place; the troops of the Pacha of Egypt had been twice beaten by the insurgents, and it was very happy for Mr. Rüppel that he was with the Ottoman troops, which, besides, were posted on a spot, in the vicinity of which there was a great quantity of ruins of the highest antiquity, chiefly consisting of sepulchres of a pyramidal form, the walls of which are adorned with sculpture in admirable taste. The last account received from our traveller, is dated 27th of July, 1824, from Cairo, to which place he had returned in consequence of the political events in Upper Egypt.

The last accounts received of Drs. Ehrenberg and Hemprich, are contained in a letter from

Alexandria to Mr. Pachó. It brings the melancholy tidings that the latter traveller had died at Massuah, on the frontiers of Abyssinia, which country they were on the point of penetrating. Dr. Ehrenberg, having lost his fellow-traveller, and being himself in an indifferent state of health, returned to Alexandria, from which city he intended to embark for Triest, and thence proceed to Berlin, where, as soon as he has recovered his strength, he will lose no time in arranging the various and novel information, which have been the fruits of five years' unremitting exertions. A very considerable portion of their large collections of natural history, antiquities, &c. made by them in Egypt and Nubia, has already arrived in Berlin.

A young Englishman, of the name of James Burton, was commissioned by the Pacha of Egypt to travel in the summer and autumn of 1822 along the west coasts of the Red Sea, and on this occasion visited countries which had hitherto been unknown to Europeans. He determined astronomically the situation of many places of which we have no knowledge but from the writings of the ancients, and made likewise many archeological discoveries.

Some accounts of the countries between Egypt and Tripolis were received at Malta in Novem-

ber 1821, from a well-educated young Turk of the name of Saddik Gibraltar, who had visited them in the summer of the same year. The particulars he gives of the ruins of the antient Cyrenaica, very nearly coincide with those given by Paul Lucas.

When, in 1821 and 1822, Captain Smith was sent to survey the coast of Africa from Alexandria to Tripolis, the two Mr. Beechys were ordered to examine the same coast by land. It is said that they have made an ample collection of observations, especially on the Pentapolis of the Cyrenaica, which it is expected will shortly be published.

While the English government, as usual, bears away the honour of the first publication of the discoveries in the Cyrenaica, it is proper to mention the attempts of other nations. Mr. Paché, a Frenchman, provided with letters from Mahomet Ali, has gone from Alexandria to the Pentapolis, which he intends to traverse in several directions. His zeal has been stimulated by the prize offered by the Society of Geography.

Mr. Paché has just returned to Paris, after having successfully accomplished the object of his expedition, in which he was exposed to considerable danger from the Bedouin Arabs. He is reported to have brought with him a large

collection of drawings of antient monuments, and of inscriptions copied in the Necropolis of Cyrene, and in the ruins of the other cities of the Pentapolis.

A M. S. journal of Mr. Cervelli, containing some rather slight notes on his journey in the Cyrenaica, with a number of interesting drawings, representing the temples and tombs, has been offered to the Society of Geography by Mr. Jomard. It seems that the society intends to publish it. Mr. Burckhardt speaks of Cervelli, and says he offered him 1000 piastres for his M. S., which were refused.

An interesting volume of travels in Western Africa, in the years 1818, 19, 20, and 21, by Major W. Gray, gives an account of the unfortunate expeditions of Major Peddie and Captain Campbell, and the sequel of them, under Major Gray and Mr. Dochart. The first half of the volume describes the proceedings from Major Peddie's setting out at the end of 1815, to January 1819, when both the Major and his successor were dead. Major Gray was half a prisoner at Bondoo, and Mr. Dochart had gone on to Sego, to endeavour to open the passage forwards. The volume treats of the western countries of Africa, adjacent to the Gambia and Senegal rivers, but though it communicates some new particulars

with respect to the manners and customs of the inhabitants, it throws but little light on the grand questions relative to African geography, the expedition having been opposed and retarded by the extortions of the princes and chiefs, and detained till mortality had so reduced its numbers that all farther efforts were vain.

Major Alexander Gordon Laing set out from Sierra Leone in 1822, on an expedition into the interior. His travels extended into the countries of Timanee, Kooranko, and Soolima, names before unheard of, and yet the most remote of these nations is within about two hundred miles of Sierra Leone. This expedition therefore, like the preceding, while it has afforded a considerable accession to our knowledge of the inhabitants, has but little contributed to the solution of any important problem in geography.

Major Laing left England at the end of the year 1824, on a second expedition into the interior of Africa; this time he does not go from Sierra Leone, but is to set out from Tripolis in Barbary with a caravan for Timbuctoo, at which place it is hoped that he will arrive without difficulty, as it appears, from the result of Major Denham's expedition, that the route is much more safe than any other which has yet

been followed. Major Laing sailed from Malta in the beginning of June.

The English government has sent the *Cameleon* sloop of war to the coast of Guinea, under the command of Mr. Clapperton, who is appointed captain; he will have Captain Pearce as second in command. The object is to penetrate to Sakkatoo from the coast of Guinea, but it is not stated at what precise point of the coast they expect to find the mouth of the great river.

A great vacuum has been filled up by the publication of discoveries made by the Portuguese, towards the middle of Southern Africa, between the mouths of the Congo and the Coanza on the one side, and of the Zambezi and the channel of Mozambique on the other, in the direction of W.N.W. E.S.E., and from the 4th to the 19th degree of south latitude. The expeditions of the Portuguese into the interior commenced in 1785, and discoveries succeeded each other for about fifteen years. Gregorio Mendes, Captain Lacerda, Pereira, and others, followed several oblique lines crossing the meridian, which, without meeting, extend to different distances, so that we have a continued succession of districts observed and described by Europeans.

The route followed by Pereira in 1796, sheds new light over the eastern part of Africa. In

addition to the great river Zambezi, he furnishes information respecting another river situated much farther towards the west, even more so than the source of the Coanza, and which at the same time flows in the direction of the channel of Mozambique. It is remarkable that the Portuguese never published any account of these discoveries, of which we might still have remained ignorant, had not the late Mr. Bowdich made a translation of the MSS., which has been published since his death.

Several European travellers in Asia have largely contributed to extend our knowledge of the countries in the interior of that great continent and of their inhabitants. The Himalaya mountains of which we knew, in 1811, that several of their peaks exceeded Chimborazo in America, till then considered as the highest mountain on the globe, were in part trigonometrically surveyed in 1818 by Lieut. A. Gerard and his brother, in the English service. They ascended, with great danger, three summits to the height of 16,921, 18,493, and 19,411 feet above the level of the sea, and made many important observations on the geology, local vegetation, the line of snow, &c.

Much information respecting the interior of Asia may be expected from Mr. Moorcroft, who was sent in 1822 by the East India Company

from India to Tartary, ostensibly for the purpose of purchasing Turcomenian horses. His chief object is said to be to establish a commercial intercourse with the western provinces of the Chinese empire. Towards the end of March 1822 he was at Leh, the capital of Ludak.

We have now reason to hope for some recent intelligence from Japan.- Captain Levens, a native of Denmark, in the Dutch service, who visited Japan in 1820 and 21, collected a number of maps and drawings, and a variety of details respecting that empire. He died soon after his return to Denmark, which delayed the publication of his journal, but it is understood to be now preparing for the press.

Dr. Lyall, an English physician, author of a large work on the history of Moscow, and the manners of the Russians, has lately published an account of his travels in Asiatic and European Russia. It is replete with new and interesting observations, particularly on the military colonies of Russia.

Senator Somoinoff and Professor Fuchs of Kasan, traversed the Ural mountains in 1823, where traces of gold had been met with so long ago as 1820. They found that in the vicinity of Kushtomkoi, in a tract of 300 wersts, the gold in grains lay almost close to the surface in a

stratum of clay, several archines thick, in such abundance, that a thousand pounds of the soil produced, merely by washing, near five solotniks of gold; nay, lumps of gold weighing six marks have been dug up.

Professor Rask of Copenhagen, happily returned in 1823, from the journey which he undertook in 1817 to Asia, for scientific purposes, and chiefly for the investigation of the languages. He travelled through Sweden and Russia to Tiflis in Georgia, made numerous excursions in Persia, and then proceeded to India. His collection of MSS. in the Sanscrit, Zend, Bengali, and Persian languages, is stated to be very rich. He is said to have made important discoveries with respect to the writing of Bali, and also of the cuneiform characters of Perepolis and Babylon.

Both Captain Cochrane in his pedestrian tour through Siberia, and Dr. Lyall, in his late work, make mention of a remarkable traveller, who, though totally blind, undertook a tour into Siberia in the years 1822 and 23. Lieutenant James Holman, for that is his name, has now published in two volumes the journal of his expedition. Considering the circumstances of the writer, it is surprising that he was able to collect so many interesting details, but of course

it cannot be supposed that he has been able to add much to our geographical knowledge. He travelled however by way of Moscow to Kasan, Yekaterinburg, Tobolsk, and Irkutsk, from which he intended to proceed to Kamtschatka, and there to embark; but in the beginning of January, 1824, a lieutenant of the Feldjagers arrived from St. Petersburg with express orders from the Emperor, not only to hinder his travelling farther into Siberia, but to bring him back as a prisoner to Russia, and conduct him over the frontiers, only giving him the choice of being escorted either to the Austrian or the Prussian dominions.

Mr. James Baillie Frazer, author of a tour in the Himalaya mountains, published some years since, has now given to the world a large quarto volume, of a narrative of a journey into Khorasan, in the years 1821 and 22, including some account of the countries to the north-east of Persia. This first volume, which it seems, is only the half of the work, contains the journey from Bombay to Muscat, Bushire, Shirauz, Tehran, Mushed, the Capital of Khorasan; and thence through the Koordish encampments to Astrabad. In the appendix are various interesting accounts of the kingdoms of Chiva, Buchara, Kokand, or Ferghanna, and other coun-

tries very imperfectly known: an illustrative map adds much to the value of the publication. Mr. Fraser draws a more unfavourable picture of Persia and its inhabitants, than any preceding traveller. He represents that kingdom as in a state of rapid decline, and its monarch as a weak and avaricious prince.

In the year 1839 the Russian government sent Mr. Tinkowski, one of the chief officers in the Asiatic department of the ministry for foreign affairs, on a mission to Peking, for the purpose of accompanying from Kiachta to that city, the Russian ecclesiastics, who were to go to supply the vacancies in the great monastery, which Russia has at Peking, and to bring back to Kiachta the priests who were to leave the convent. Mr. T. kept a minute journal of his mission, filled with historical, geographical, and statistical notices. The first volume contains the account of his journey to Peking, the second, a description of that city, and the third, the narrative of the return to Russia by a different route. Two volumes only have yet been published in the Russian language. The extracts which have appeared in various literary journals, give a very favourable idea of the work, and excite a wish that it may be soon translated into other languages.

Mr. Buckingham, who some years since published an interesting account of his travels in Palestine, has now given to the world his travels among the Arab tribes, inhabiting the countries east of Syria and Palestine. He set out from Nazareth, crossed the Jordan above Beisan, and between that place and Oom Kais, whence he proceeded in a line nearly parallel to the river down to Assalt. At this place, where he lodged in the house of a merchant, he heard a great variety of geographical and topographical facts respecting the position of antient and modern places in the neighbourhood, the very names of which he says are unknown in Europe. Considering the account which he gives of the great ignorance and superstition of the inhabitants, it does not appear that much reliance can be placed upon information imparted by such authorities. There can be no doubt however, that innumerable ruins of antient towns still exist in the country, but the want of opportunities to record what is seen, and the inconvenience attending travellers in a land which the natives imagine strangers visit only to rob it of its concealed treasures, by means of magic, are great obstacles.

With respect to America, the researches in Brazil, so happily commenced by Spix, Martius, Pohl, and St. Hilaire, have been prosecuted

with the greatest success by Professor Natterer. In November 1822 he went northwards, into the province of Goyaz, but during the rainy season he was obliged to stop on the banks of the Yrissanga till the 30th of March 1823, the inundation being this year more considerable than usual. On the 27th of the same month he came to the banks of the Rio Pardo, which is 150 paces broad, and on the 19th of April at the Rio Parana, or as it is generally called, the Rio Grande. On the 10th of June he arrived at the Rio das Velhas, which is the boundary between Goyaz and Minas Geraes. Thence he passed over the Rio Garnaira, the Virissimo, the Rio Columbar, and to Villa Boa, now called Cidade de Goyaz, which he reached on the 2d of August. During this journey he made several important discoveries relative to natural history, and made considerable addition to his collections. He intended to go, in the beginning of September, to the Rio Araguay, and to provide himself at Registo with provisions for ten weeks, in order to traverse the extensive desert of Matto Grosso, which is inhabited only by savage and predatory tribes. He proposed to pass the rainy season at Cujaba, and go in March 1824 to Villa Bella, the chief town of Matto Grosso. Thence he res

to one of the large rivers, Topaíos or Madeira, and sail down to the Amazons, in order to embark in the harbour of Para for Europe, with his collections. He was expected at the end of last year, but has not yet arrived, and it is understood that he has undertaken another expedition into the interior.

We may expect some important additions to our knowledge of this country, from a Frenchman, M. Cochelet, who received particular instructions from the Geographical Society at Paris and set out for Brazil in the year 1823.

Another Frenchman, M. Mollien, well known for his travels in Africa in 1818, to discover the sources of the Senegal and Gambia, has returned from his visit to Columbia. Among other places, he describes the province of Choco and its gold-washing, as also the island of Cascaial or S. Buena Ventura. His journal, of which an English translation has appeared, contains a variety of interesting information respecting the country and its inhabitants; but the stay which he made was too limited, and the distance which he advanced into the interior, from the banks of the rivers, too inconsiderable, to add much to our geographical knowledge.

Captain Stewart Cochrane, who travelled in Columbia in 1823 and 24, has published an ac-

count of his observations in two volumes octavo. His work contains a good deal of interesting information on commercial and political subjects, but does not afford any remarkable addition to our acquaintance with the internal geography of the country.

Captain Basil Hall's account of Chili, Peru, and Mexico, extracted from his journal in 1820, 21 and 22, is one of the most interesting hitherto published respecting the present state of those countries. Very recent observers, however, say, that Captain Hall appears to have seen every thing *couleur de rose*, and in particular, that he has given far too favourable an opinion respecting the refinement of the inhabitants.

A more important work is an historical and descriptive narrative of twenty years' residence in South America, by W. B. Stevenson, in 3 vols. octavo. The author during so long a period had of course great facilities of observation, of which he seems to have made very good use, but without entering into the scientific details which distinguished the labours of Mr. Von Humboldt, of whose personal narrative another volume has lately been published. This new volume however does not contain any considerable portion of the personal adventures of the author, but is chiefly filled with important statistical details,

relative to the population of the new world, the geology, the face of the country, &c. &c. Other travellers in South America who have published their remarks are Mr. Proctor, Mr. Schmidtmeier, and Mr. Matheson on Chili, Mrs. Graham on Chili and Brazil, and Mr. Caldcleugh on Brazil, Buenos Ayres, and Chili. The latter traveller furnishes a variety of useful information concerning the mines and commerce of the countries visited by him, and of the manners of the inhabitants.

In North America, the government of the United States continues to shew a laudable anxiety to explore the still imperfectly known regions in the interior of the continent. The success which attended the expedition to the Rocky Mountains, and the important information which it imparted concerning the nature of the valley traversed by the Missouri and its tributaries, induced the government of the United States to continue its endeavours to explore the unknown wilds within its limits; and the first object which occurred as deserving investigation was the tract of country bounded by the Missouri, the Mississippi, and the northern boundary of the United States, which is a triangular section, including about three hundred miles of longitude and seven hundred of latitude.

All later travellers to the Upper Mississippi concurred in mentioning a river, Saint Peter, discovered at the end of the 17th century, but visited only by Carver in 1778, whose account of it was supposed to contain many inaccuracies. The government, desiring to obtain a correct knowledge of the country on the St. Peter and the Red river to the 49th degree of latitude, sent an expedition in the spring of 1823, under the command of Major Long, accompanied by several scientific gentlemen. They proceeded from Wheeling in Virginia to the banks of the Mississippi, and then northwards to Pembina on the Red river, in lat. 49°, where Major Long, according to his instructions, had a post fixed up to mark the boundary between the British territory on the north and that of the United States on the south. The expedition then proceeded to Lake Winnepeek, the Lake of the woods, and so on to Lakes Superior, Huron, and Erie, and reached Philadelphia on the 26th October, after a journey of about 4000 miles, which they had performed in six months. Their journal contains a great variety of new information relative to the geology of that extensive tract, the manners of the Indian population, and the extensive and curious works, in the neighbourhood of Zanesville and Piqua, the monuments of a na-

tion which must have been far more advanced in civilisation than those who were in possession of the country when it first became known to the Europeans.

Very favourable intelligence continues to be received from Captain Franklin and his party, who are gone on a second expedition to the northern coasts of the American Continent. Unfortunately the hope that was conceived, of his being met by the expedition of Captain Parry will not be realised, the latter having been obliged to return home, in consequence of the loss of one of his ships, the *Fury*, which contained the greater part of the stores, so that the other ship, the *Hecla*, had not sufficient for the crews of both vessels for another year. It does not appear that any discoveries were made on this voyage, and it is reported that no farther attempt in that quarter will be made for the present. Captain Lyon too, who was sent to Repulse Bay, was compelled by continued storms to renounce his object and return to England.

The increasing importance and prosperity of the English settlements in New South Wales, render all authentic intelligence from that country highly acceptable. Of this description is a volume of geographical memoirs of that country, edited by Barron Field, Esq. late judge of

the supreme court in that colony. The most important part relates to discoveries about Moreton Bay, and the navigable river Brisbane, about four hundred miles to the northward of Port Jackson ; apparently a fertile district, and lying in the direction in which it is most expedient to extend colonization. This river, which was explored by Mr. Oxley, and subsequently by Mr. Stirling and Mr. Uniacke, bids fair to make up for the disappointments in the Lachlan and Macquarie ; its existence appears to have been suspected as long ago as 1770 by Captain Cook.

Much information respecting the coasts of New Holland will undoubtedly be afforded by the publication of the expedition of Captain Philip Parker King, who was sent by the English government to examine the unexplored shores of the Australasian continent ; and in four successive voyages, surveyed above 3000 miles of coast. A most important consequence of his expedition has been to enable the government to determine the site of a new settlement, which it had been long since resolved to form on some part of New Holland, quite remote from the other settlements, and adapted to give the new colony political and commercial importance. Captain King's

charts having been laid before the Admiralty, on his return, there appeared, on the line of coast surveyed by him, a spot so entirely combining every advantage, that it was soon fixed upon as the site of the new settlement. Accordingly the Tamar frigate, commanded by Captain Bremer, was dispatched from England, in February, 1824, with orders to proceed to New South Wales. Having there taken in soldiers, workmen, artillery, and every other requisite; the Tamar sailed for her destination, on the north part of New Holland, nearly opposite to New Guinea, at Port Cockburn, in Apsley Strait, between Bathurst and Melville Islands. Formal possession, however, was taken of the whole coast, between the meridians, of 129° and 135° east longitude.

This new settlement will undoubtedly become of great future importance, and likewise afford facilities for obtaining a more accurate knowledge both of New Holland, and of the great and imperfectly known island of New Guinea.

Though it can hardly be expected, in the present state of nautical science, that any extensive discoveries, in the strict sense of the term, can now be made, much still remains to be done, in correcting errors of former naviga-

tors, and particularly in ascertaining the exact positions of the most important points. Voyages of discovery, therefore, as they are called, continue to be promoted by the enlightened governments of Europe, and even the commanders of private traders are now intent on collecting in their voyages to remote countries, information, which, half a century ago, they would have disregarded. Of this we have an instance in Captain Weddell, who has published a very instructive account of the South Sea. He visited the Falkland islands, South Shetland, Terra del Fuego, Cape Horn, &c. Mr. Weddell, in addition to the valuable information which he himself affords, has great merit in having detected various blunders and mistakes in former navigators. Thus he observes, that being in latitude $63^{\circ} 21'$ and longitude $45^{\circ} 22'$ he was in a situation where he should have seen what is represented on the South Atlantic chart in common use, as South Iceland, but no such place was to be found. Considering our very imperfect knowledge of those desolate coasts of the South American continent, the detailed nautical notices communicated by Captain Weddell, are extremely valuable. He was likewise fortunate in having had some intercourse with the natives of Terra

del Fuego, who, in his opinion, had never before seen an European vessel.

Captain Duncan, of the Greenland Whaler, the *Dundar*, explored in September 1823, in $68^{\circ} 41'$ north latitude, and $24^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, an hitherto unknown part of Greenland, and discovered some islands. To the most southern promontory, he gave the name of Duncan's bay; to another that of Cape Despair; and the whole extent of coast of the continent, between Cape Barclay (determined by Mr. Scoresby, jun.) in the north, and Cape Duncan's bay in the south, he called Galesland. It runs in the direction of north north-east to south south-west. One of the islands received the name of Sayer's island, and the other Robinson's island. The coast of Galesland was high and steep, so that they could not effect a landing on any point. The north side of the mountains was covered with snow, and the south side was green. With the exception of a very deep inlet to the south of Robinson's island, the coast presented but few indentations. There was more floating than fixed ice, and much drift wood: they saw no traces of inhabitants. These supposed new discoveries of Duncan, as well as those of the younger Scoresby, are probably but confirmations of those of older navigators, only

that the more perfect instruments we now possess have enabled the later explorers to determine their astronomical position with accuracy.

The Russian Captain Litké has surveyed in several successive voyages the coasts of Nova Zembla.

Captain Von Kotzebue, who is gone to the north-west coast of America and Beering's Straits, has arrived safe in the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, in Kamtschatka. He had revisited the islands of Radack, and discovered three or four new islands in the southern ocean. From Kamtschatka he sailed to the Russian settlement of Sitka ; no further account of his proceedings has yet been received.

Captain Duperrey, of the *Coquille*, has returned from his voyage round the world, in which he visited the Falkland islands, the coasts of Chili and Peru, the dangerous Archipelago, and several other groups in the Pacific, New Iceland, the Moluccas, New Holland, New Zealand, the Carolines, Java, Isle de France, Isle de Bourbon, and returned to France, after an absence of thirty-one months and thirteen days, during which period he had sailed above twenty-five thousand leagues. During this long and dangerous voyage, the observations relative to the objects of the expedition were

prosecuted with indefatigable zeal by the captain and officers of the corvette; numerous plans and charts, made with great care, and collections formed, of all the three kingdoms of nature, which are highly interesting, both for their extent and novelty. These circumstances are the more deserving of notice, because all the manifold and divers labours were executed by the naval officers on board the corvette. It is remarkable that the *Coquille* did not lose a single man in the course of her voyage, and that the expense was less than that of a ship of equal size employed in the coasting trade. From the detached notices which have hitherto appeared in France, we learn that on the 22d of April, 1823, he discovered, near the dangerous Archipelago, some new islands, to which he gave the names of Clermont Tonnerre, Augier, Freycinet, and Lostange. They found Otaheite to be quite changed from what it formerly was. Not one of the numerous canoes which formerly welcomed Wallis, Bougainville, Cook, and Vancouver, came to meet the *Coquille*. It was Sunday, and all the inhabitants were at church. The island has now been converted to Christianity by the English missionaries. The women too, were more reserved, and did not come on board the ship as they used to do. The king

has only one wife, and they have entirely abolished the custom of killing children, and offering human sacrifices. Almost all the inhabitants can read and write, they have religious books in their own language, which are printed in the island. Six and thirty churches are already built in Otaheite, Ulietea, and Eimeo, where the whole people assemble twice a-week to attend service, in which they join with much devotion. Nay, many of the hearers are often seen taking notes with a pencil during the sermon. Every year the missionaries assemble the whole population, consisting of seven thousand souls, in the church of Papahoa, which has been built on purpose to receive so great a number of people. One of these annual meetings was held at the time Captain Duperry was there, they were then discussing a new code of laws; the most distinguished chiefs ascended the tribune, and spoke for hours together, with extraordinary animation. Some strangers, whom the French officers met with in these islands, were of opinion that the missionaries had required too much, and had made the people real slaves. It seemed very probable, that a revolution would soon take place, the inhabitants being very discontented, and having very unwillingly given up some of their antient customs, which were very

innocent. Thus they have been forbidden to tatoo themselves, to dance, to play upon the flute, and to wear wreaths of flowers. Whoever transgresses these orders, is condemned to make a piece of road, at least twenty toises in length. This is the origin of the road which runs round the whole island, and is made in a very solid manner.

Many of the inhabitants have retired into the mountains, to live according to their old customs, and there are many ambitious chiefs in the island. The last king, Pomaré II. who died two years before, left only two infant children. The young king, Pomaré III. is now (end of 1825) between five and six years of age. The regency is in the hands of his aunt, who is a native of another island, and not much liked, so that it may be feared that the crown will be transferred to another family. Perhaps the island may one day fall into the hands of an European power. It would be very convenient for Russia, on account of the trade of Kaimtschatka, and the north-west coast of America. England, under whose protection it was, has refused, as it is said, to continue it, except on condition, that the island receives an English garrison, and hoists the English flag. Otaheite has declined this, and had declared itself

independent of England, two months before Captain Duperrey's arrival, and planted a red flag, with a white star in the upper corner. There is no doubt that commerce will flourish in Otaheite ; a trade is already opened with Port Jackson, to which the island exports pickled pork, bacon, cocoa oil, cotton, sugar, &c. They have also discovered veins of iron, and a root called Ava, which possesses extraordinary medicinal virtues, and promises to become a most important article of commerce.

Captain Cruise, who was sent in 1819 to New Zealand for a cargo of timber, calculated for the main masts of ships of war, has published a very interesting account of his voyage. Though he did not succeed in his principal object, he had opportunity, during a residence of ten months, to make remarkable and new observations on the natural productions of the island, as well as on the character, manners, and customs of the inhabitants. Unfortunately the English missionaries, who have been established here since 1814, have not been so successful as in Otaheite. The New Zealanders are still extremely low in the scale of humanity, sufficient proof of which is that human flesh is still, as in the time of Cook, their favourite food.

INTRODUCTION.

Captain John Bell, on a voyage from South America to India in the summer of 1822 discovered four new islands; the first in $18^{\circ} 22'$ south latitude, and $136^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude from Greenwich; the second, which he called David Clarke's island, in $17^{\circ} 19'$ south latitude, and $138^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude; it appeared to be about 20 miles in circumference, and was inhabited; but the natives, who had never seen Europeans before, were very timid and mistrustful: the third, Reirson, in $10^{\circ} 6'$ south latitude, and $160^{\circ} 55'$ west longitude, also inhabited; the fourth, Humphrey in $10^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, and $168^{\circ} 2'$ west longitude, which likewise appeared to be inhabited.

Captain Hunter has discovered, in $15^{\circ} 13'$ S. Lat. and $176^{\circ} 11'$ E. Long., an island called *Onacusa*, to which he gave the name of Hunter's Island.

Capt. W. F. Owen stopped in February, 1824, at the island of Mombass on the East coast of Africa, in 43° S. Lat., and $39^{\circ} 41'$ E. Long. The island being at that time blockaded by a squadron of the Iman of Muscat, the inhabitants proposed to Capt. O. to place themselves under the protection of England.

A

JOURNEY IN NORTH HOLLAND,

In June, 1822.

" To men of other minds my fancy flies,
" Embosom'd in the deep, where Holland lies.
" Methinks her patient sons before me stand,
" Where the broad ocean leans against the land,
" And sedulous to stop the coming tide,
" Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride.
" Onward, methinks, and diligently slow,
" The firm connected bulwark seems to go ;
" Spreads its long arms amidst the watery roar,
" Scoops out an empire, and usurps the shore."

GOLDSMITH.

TRAVELLERS in North Holland are obliged by the form of the country, to follow nearly the same route. They visit the Hague, and proceed to Amsterdam, by way of Leyden and Haarlem, in each of which they spend a few days. By taking this road, however, they miss the whole of North Holland, that is to say, the most singular and most national part of the kingdom. A concurrence of particular circumstances is necessary to lead strangers to visit that province, and to make

themselves acquainted with the very peculiar manners of the people. It is because the author was favoured by such a combination of circumstances, that he is induced to give some account of his tour.

This rich and interesting country projects boldly into the midst of the waves, and is of a very remarkable shape. It is united to the rest of the Continent by a very narrow tongue of land, and yet in a length of twenty leagues it is often from six to seven broad. The sands and the waves constantly dispute the possession of it. The soil is almost everywhere much below the level of the sea, which a breath of wind may send over your heads ; and in the midst of every thing that is calculated to excite alarm, the lace of the humblest country-woman, the china of the meanest cottage, are no less carefully attended to, than the gigantic works, which are destined to conduct into these marshes, all the commerce of the world. Man appears very great, contrasted with nature, which has treated him like a step-mother.

A few years ago, a causeway was made from Haarlem to Alckmaer, so that the road between those two towns is excellent. In a country where the inhabitants execute very well what they undertake to do, when they have once determined to make a road, which is a very tedious and ex-

pensive operation, they have one that is perfect; but there is no medium, no such thing as roads of different degrees of goodness; on the side of that which is made, all is impenetrable, and there is no communication whatever. When the ground is left to itself, the sand is a fathom deep. This is especially the case in the environs of Haarlem. These excellent roads are paved in their whole breadth with clinkers, which are harder and smaller than the bricks used in building. They are placed edgewise, close together. The chief art consists in thoroughly ramming and consolidating the foundation, and then in placing the clinkers so as to leave no space between them. The road is slightly arched in the most regular manner; it is then covered with a thin layer of sand, and thus a delightful road is made, much less hard than the French paved causeways, though not so easy as the high roads in England. In this country, which is entirely artificial, and whence it has been said, with much truth, that *the Dutch had built Holland*, they were obliged to begin with making the soil, in spite of the waves; this clay, gained by immense labour, has been converted into every thing, pavements, houses, statues, roofs, including an enormous quantity of pipes. A stone is a thing totally unknown there. They have had to fetch from the

mountains of Norway, the rocks which form the dikes; and from the quarries of Italy, the immense quantity of marble which adorns all the houses.

We had left Haarlem at three o'clock in the afternoon, in an open chaise, used in the country, and called Kirbac. This carriage, which is very light, and almost entirely of wicker-work, could only be used on such roads as we have just described, along which it runs very pleasantly. It is not much unlike what is called a Stuhlwagen in the north of Germany, and has the advantage of a large door behind. This manner of getting in and out is so safe, that it is extraordinary it is not more commonly adopted. We soon reached Wehl. The road to that place is adorned with country houses, the general appearance of which is curious, though none of them deserve particular attention. They are for the most part of a dazzling white, but sometimes painted grey or bright yellow. The roofs, which are in the nicest order, are covered with glazed tiles of a dark brown colour, which have a very pretty effect. The neatness and order prevailing here are perfect, and worthy of the reputation of the Dutch. There are many trees, and often very fine ones, beeches, maples, poplars, limes, and elms. But we almost always looked in vain for those beau-

tiful chesnuts, acacias, planes, and walnut trees, which we are accustomed to regard as the necessary accompaniments of a country seat. Before the house there is always a grass-plat, which the sun, however, had scorched up before our arrival, notwithstanding the natural humidity of the soil. It is more or less covered with flowers, as well in boxes and baskets as in vases, which sometimes adorn the flights of steps in front of the houses. Between this grass-plat and the road there is always the national part of the scenery, namely, the canal; a piece of stagnant and green water, which does not offend the eyes only. Lastly, on its banks, on the side of the road, there is always placed the hexagonal summer-house, where they take coffee, the men smoke their pipe, or the whole family attentively examine the passengers.

The traveller who pretended that the Dutch placed all their happiness in resting on the banks of a canal, their eyes mournfully fixed on a frog, has, like many others, shewn his wit at the expense of truth; but it is certain that the patience which enables people to remain for a long time nearly mute and motionless looking upon vacancy, is more frequently found in the Dutch summer-houses than in other countries. To complete the characteristic features of the rural abodes of these rich citizens, two small iron gates,

closing the bridges by which they are approached, generally bear the name of the retreat, inscribed in letters of gold on their bars; and these names are not always simple and unaffected—"Sweet Repose," "Far from Business," &c.

All this is kept in the most complete order; often beautiful, and perhaps fresh and verdant when the dog-days do not prevent it; but the indefinable charms of the English landscapes, the softness of their outlines, is hardly ever met with. Besides, in a country, flat as the water which surrounds it, we must renounce the pleasure of having a rising prospect, at least a distant one, such as in Switzerland, for example, would be called a view. There is a spot, however, in the environs of Haarlem, which deserves in this respect a particular exception, and presents a panorama worthy of admiration. About half a league from this city, as you go north-east towards the sea, you discover the majestic ruins of a fortress standing in the midst of a very verdant meadow. This is Brederode; and those who have some acquaintance with the history of the revolt of the Netherlands, cannot hear this name without feeling some interest. The house of Brederode, one of the most illustrious of the country, claimed to be descended from the ancient Counts of Holland; its chief placed himself,

or rather he was placed, at the head of the party of the *Gueux*. Handsome, brilliant, licentious, obstinate, and without real energy of character, he reminds us in many respects of the part which the Duke of Beaufort played in the Fronde ; and, like him, went to perish without glory in a foreign country. The number of his retainers was immense ; he was a splendid conspirator ; and when we behold these enormous chimneys still bearing the marks of much service, we think we also see the entertainments which have blackened them ; when we ascend these staircases, worn by so many steps, we think we can still see the traces of the elegant feet which trod them in the sixteenth century. These lofty dark red towers have a noble effect upon the green sward which surrounds them, and which has now clothed the moats so as to leave only the varieties of the ground, which are as pleasing as they are uncommon in this country.

The environs, on which much pains are bestowed, are one of the favourite promenades of the citizens of Haarlem. On leaving them, we proceed by a road of sand towards the dreary part of the country where that sand reigns alone, and we ascend as we can to a little cottage. We are then on the downs, and the view is magnificent, combining a degree of richness and diversity

A JOURNEY IN

which cannot be described, but which produces a striking effect.' On turning round, you have opposite to you the Y, the *Wycker meer*, and the Lake of Haarlem; these inland lakes which threaten to extend over the whole country, the ships which cover them, and the rich and numerous villages which border the other bank. When the atmosphere is clear, we can distinguish the thousand wind-mills of Saardam; to the left, the meadows of North Holland, and the groves which surround each habitation; to the right, Haarlem, with its enormous cathedral, the broad *Späre*, and the ships which cover it, shewing their sails and masts among the roofs and trees in the most picturesque manner. Near the city we see a small pile of ruins, which still marks out to posterity the head-quarters of the Spaniards during that horrible siege, in which Don Juan of Toledo shewed so much ferocity; and where all the inhabitants of Haarlem, but above all the females, conducted by the famous heroine Simon Hasselaer, displayed such wonderful and successful courage. Lastly, we find these beautiful ruins of Brederode backed by a magnificent forest, and commanding vast meadows, covered with flocks. But if the prospect which the other part of the picture affords is less pleasing, it is equally striking. In the distance, the sea extends farther than the eye

can reach ; but between that and the spectator there is a desert and desolate tract, nearly a league in breadth. Nothing can be more dreary than this ocean of sand ; and the succession of elevations and hollows gives entirely the idea of a sea, as inaccessible, as that which follows seems easy to navigate. It is a perfect image of aridity and barrenness ; some broom, scarcely green, and some stunted shrubs, growing at intervals in the hollows where they are sheltered from the wind, alone interrupt this dreary solitude. The prospect embraces several leagues of such country ; and, from the Helder to Zealand, these gloomy, though protecting deserts, everywhere extend between the cultivated country and the sea. It is death by the side of life ; and the effect of both parts of the picture is singularly heightened by the contrast.

The means by which these downs may be rendered fertile is a question of the highest importance to Holland, and has for a long time engaged the attention of the most skilful agriculturists. It has two obstacles to overcome : one, the nature of these elevations, where the sand will sometimes not admit any vegetation ; and the other, the violence of the sea winds, which ravage the downs themselves, and whatever is attempted to be planted on them. The first operation, therefore,

has necessarily been to attempt to consolidate a soil, the surface of which is continually carried away. For this purpose they have begun by planting the part which they wish to cultivate with sea-reed grass, which grows in the sand on the sea side. This is transplanted, after being cut down half a foot above the root; and, to shelter it from the wind, they place on the ground, straw, ranged in the manner of hedges, three feet asunder, between which they plant the reeds. By degrees the ground becomes solid, and the mould is formed, as well by the decomposition of these first vegetables, as by the manure, marle, or good earth which is often brought from a great distance. Then, according to the purpose for which the land is intended, the real plantation begins; whether of wood, such as pines, alders, birches, &c.; or of potatoes, which, of all plants, thrives the best. Those which grow in this sand are far superior to all others. When cultivated in this manner, these downs are a great ornament to the landscape; and the proprietor of the charming estate of Elswood has most happily turned to account a small part of the thousands of acres of downs attached to his domain. After having well planted them with wood (and these plantations, which grow and decay very rapidly, without ever attaining any great height, become

very bushy in fifteen years), he has cut some of them perpendicularly, and made a little canal wind among them; and found means to have, in Holland, un *pont du Diable*, tolerably rude, and not very ridiculous. We even had occasion to see on his estate an operation truly national. One of these downs, formed of a very fine sand, entirely barren, but very well adapted for the purpose of building, covered, to the depth of twenty or twenty-five feet, a soil which seemed to be fertile. Workmen were, therefore, employed to remove this hill, for two reasons. For this, and this only, a navigable canal was dug. It communicated, on the one side, with the great canals of Haarlem; and, on the other, with the hill, into which it penetrated in proportion as the excavations proceeded and the sand was removed. It was to be filled up immediately after, and those who undertook the work found their account in this two-fold operation.

Among the equipages which we met upon the road there was one which struck us by its singularity. Imagine the tilbury of one of our fashionables, but built in the form of an expanding flower, so that the feet of the two persons sitting in it are very closely confined, and the centre of gravity is suspended out of the body of the vehicle which is very high, and covered with

paintings in the taste of the seventeenth century : such is this most simple and dangerous carriage, which we should least of all expect to find among the steady and heavy Dutch farmers. It is however their national cabriolet. If we put to it one of those large Friesland horses, called *hard trotters*, with his beautiful shining black coat, and a tail close cropped, and if we place inside, one of those corpulent citizens dressed in black, and a large cocked hat, and seated at his side one of those charming figures (such, says a gallant traveller, as nature has not produced, except in North Holland) entirely in white, with the long lappets of her elegant head-dress floating in the air, if we suppose these two persons with the genuine national sang froid, flying like the wind in this equipage, the reader will have an idea of an extremely curious sight which we enjoyed every minute.

The next day the scene was changed, we met on the road only the numerous country people on their way to Haarlem with milk, fruit, and vegetables. But this sight also was still picturesque. Each of these rustic dealers carried his goods in two long baskets by means of a yoke. The strawberries ranged in two long lines of little red earthen pots looked very tempting.

From Welz to the fine village of Bowerwyck, is about a league. The appearance of the road

is nearly the same, but, as almost always happens, the fine country seats are more considerable, and at the same time fewer in number, in proportion as we go farther from the cities. There is one belonging to Mr. Hooft, the plantations of which are of extraordinary magnificence. The avenues of beeches and oaks, nearly a mile in length, are equal to any thing that England itself can shew. One is only astonished that such large and flourishing trees can take root in a soil where it seems that a kick of the foot would cause water every where to issue.

If Beverwyck is called a village, (and the total absence of walls, and of town-houses, its agriculture, and the mode of life of its inhabitants, will not permit us to give it any other name) it is one of the most beautiful villages in the world; the brightness of the windows, the frames of which are for the most part painted of a pink colour, the trees in the principal street so accurately cut in the form of a fan, the number of carriages, and the studied neatness which prevails, give it a peculiar appearance. On leaving it the country houses gradually disappear, the pasture land begins, and with it the view of those fine herds which almost cover the country as far as the eye can reach, and would alone be sufficient to give to North Holland a most peculiarly interesting

aspect. We bid a last adieu to these waves which we have so long seen on the right hand of the road, and a good eye may still perceive among the trees those red sails, which, seeming to run over the meadows and roofs, would excite great surprise in any other country. In this vast plain of verdure we soon cease to meet with any shade, and in general it is to this want of scattered and insulated trees, developing irregularly and without constraint all their forms in the midst of the meadows, that the inferiority of every country is owing, when compared with England with respect to landscape. Besides the grass, and the animals which tread it under foot, we see only some miserable willows, some inclosures less picturesque than those of the Alps, and some bent and dry trunks, or at least objects which seem to be such, for you must see them close at hand, to be convinced that they are immense bones of whales which are placed in the meadows for the oxen to lean and rub themselves against. But if the people sometimes think of gratifying the fancies of the animals, they make no difficulty of refusing them when they find it to their advantage. At a farm upon the road we saw several calves shut up to be fattened in little cages in which they could scarcely move. Six or eight of these, placed close together,

seemed at a distance calculated only for poultry.

We soon come to the land belonging to the Chateau of *Market*, the largest and most noble residence in this part of the country. The woods of the chateau extend to the high road, and little posts, placed at the corners of the forest, announce to those who pass by, that this is *the private preserve of Mr. R.* This precaution is as proper in this vast domain as it had seemed to us ridiculous in the slips of land and little groves in the environs of the Hague, where, in spite of the impossibility of putting a dog and a hare at the same time, the proprietors affix notices, in large letters, threatening to prosecute such as trespass on their ground. We remarked, among other things, a large aviary full of tame finches, which are designed to entice the wild ones within the reach of the gun and the net. This seems to be a sport very much in fashion in this country.

From Market to Alckmaer the landscape is not remarkable: some fields inferior to those of Belgium, a prodigious quantity of potatoes, of meadows full of oxen, but not yet any of those artificial lands rendered fertile by so much labour and mud which are the real wonders of Holland. It would be a country pretty much like any other, did not the Downs, shewing from time their bare

heads among the shrubs which they shelter, remind you that the sea is near you, and perhaps above your head, and seem to urge you to pass on quickly. We soon reach a little village called *Castricum*; and this Latin name among the *yeks* and the *dams* suddenly carries us back to the time of the Batavians and the invasion of the Romans in these countries. A little farther on the ruins of Egmont recal another invasion, another age of bravery, and resistance to tyranny.

In the vicinity of Alckmaer every thing becomes more elegant; the arch of verdure under which you travel, grows more beautiful at every step; the costumes are more striking, and we soon discover the famous wood of Alckmaer, a beloved and revered promenade. The inhabitants of Alckmaer have the same enthusiasm for their wood as those of Haarlem and the Hague have for theirs. Holland is the only country where each town has at its gates a magnificent forest, which is public and inviolable property. If a person were immediately conveyed to Alckmaer from the dirty villages in the South of France, the paltry towns of Prussia, or the dilapidated huts of Ireland, he would not think it possible that it was inhabited by beings of the same species. The appearance is extremely striking; it is a little open town, not containing ten thou-

sand inhabitants. It has neither a court to give it an air of opulence, nor mineral waters to attract the rich and the idle. It is always the same, existing by itself and its sedentary and plain inhabitants; nothing, however, can equal its lustre. It is very antient, and the roofs, separated from each other on the top, look like little steeples, and form on each side of the street a series of festoons of great elegance. The outside of the houses is much more ornamented, and their forms more various than at the Hague, which is an entirely noble and modern town. The colours are glaring; the bricks are for the most part of their natural colour, but sometimes painted yellow or green. Each house immediately fronting the street much resembles in this respect the English houses; but instead of the kennel between the latter and the street, the Dutch houses have a fence of stone or iron, thus enclosing a slip of ground before the house, the reason of which is not very evident. If this succession of barricades were removed, the street would have on each side an excellent marble foot pavement. But these fortifications on the other hand, add much to the picturesque character of the view; and as to the effect produced by the shining knockers of the doors, the bright windows and the carefully swept street, it is too well known

to be dwelt upon. The luxury of these windows, the glass of which, tinged with pink, blue, or above all, purple, gives to objects out of doors, a hue which is thought more agreeable, is alone very remarkable. It is very expensive, and yet it is met with in the smallest towns, and even in the villages. The town-hall, which strikes you at once, in the middle of the great street, is more ornamented than all the rest; the boldness of the fancy work of its little towers, its thousands of rosettes and ogives are not destitute of elegance, or even of taste. There is a delicacy, a fineness of workmanship which is not seen in our most beautiful modern edifices. In an age which aims at what is positive, people improve chiefly by simplifying, and the large fronts of our houses do not by any means employ the chisel of our architects so much as the smallest edifices of our ancestors. The new town of Edinburgh, the finest assemblage of modern houses existing, has not in its whole extent so much microscopic work imitating lace, as the little town of Alckmaer. It resembles in miniature that of Brussels, that chef d'œuvre of minuteness and patience, on beholding which we easily comprehend why the architect threw himself from it in despair, when it was proved to him that this result of his whole life, the production of all his taste, imagination,

and genius must for ever remain with a steeple placed awry. At seven o'clock in the morning the great street, which is always very quiet, was more so than usual, that is to say, it was absolutely deserted. After knocking long and repeatedly at a door over which there was a sign with an English inscription, we were at length introduced into a passage, the floor and walls of which were of porcelain and beautiful Italian marble. From this there was a view of a verdant grove, with a statue in the middle of it, and a canal beyond, which made us understand why the street was deserted. In this handsome inn we were surrounded with those elegant costumes, those rich head-dresses, worthy of the countenances they adorn, and which, however difficult a task, we must endeavour to describe.

Alckmaer is a kind of capital of the province of North Holland, which displays more than any other the triumph of industry over nature. Its situation, in the centre of a small country almost entirely surrounded with water, renders its population, at once, agricultural and commercial. Part of its inhabitants are occupied in cultivating tulips, the rest in selling cheese, which is the best in Holland. The countenances of the inhabitants, but particularly of the women, are very remarkable. They almost always dress in white, and

their head-dress is quite national. A large bandeau of lace is placed immediately on the forehead. A thin plate of gold, confining the hair in a half circle, at the back of the head, terminates at each temple in a little hook which is fastened to the curls. This hook is often ornamented with precious stones, and in every case elegantly wrought. If we could be certain of offending nobody, we should take the liberty, in order to give a good idea of this singular part of the head-dress, to compare it to a horse-shoe, with two cramps at its extremities. Over this bandeau, and over many other things, (for we perceive much gold and embroidery which we could not see in detail) is placed a lace cap, very transparent, terminated by broad lappets, which hang gracefully on the neck. It is said that this costume embellishes the persons who wear it, but on the other hand that they must be very pretty to become it. On the whole it is certain that the young girls who are seen in this dress in the streets of Alckmaer, at the windows, and in the cabriolets, strike the eye extremely, and by a kind of beauty very different from those of Hassly and Guggisberg, that is to say, infinitely more dignified. Each of these caps costs above two hundred francs ; the streets of this little town are full of jewellers' shops, where these wealthy farmers

come to exchange the produce of their herds for these ornaments. It is principally at the cheese-market, which is held every week, that it is interesting to observe these rich people. They resort thither from all parts of the country, either in boats, or in carriages, and are crowded on the bank of one of the canals in a little square, where an enormous balance weighs all that is sold in the town. A thousand boats arrive from the country laden with this valuable commodity, a thousand others are loaded with it to convey it to the principal towns, and particularly to carry it on board the vessels which are to transport it to the remotest quarters of the globe. Though the best Dutch cheese is known in the trade by the name of Edam cheese, almost the whole is in fact made at present in the environs of Alokmaer. These cheeses are superior to all others for the use of the navy, and for exportation to distant countries. This advantage is owing to the care which the Dutch take to express all the milk from the caseous and buttery parts. The cheese acquires by this more solidity, and is less liable to turn sour than that of Auvergne, which it much resembles.

A very interesting object was the principal cause of our visit to Alokmaer. It was the New Canal, that gigantic enterprise which is to change

the face of the whole country, the commerce of Amsterdam, the political and military existence of the kingdom. Amsterdam, situated between the Zuydersee and the Y, has hitherto certainly afforded a fine and good harbour to the vessels which arrived there, but the arrival was very tedious and difficult: a thousand sand-banks impeded the approach to the city. Ships obliged to cross the whole of the Zuydersee, on entering and going out, that is to say, at Mars Diep and the Pampus, met with obstacles which were frequently insurmountable. The ships of the line did not attempt to overcome them, and remained at the Helder. Others were forced to unload a part of their cargo, or to be raised upon *Camels*, a kind of machine constructed for the purpose. They had to wait many weeks, to run great risks, and to incur considerable expense before the vessel which had arrived in the bay of the Texel could land its cargo in the warehouses of Amsterdam.

To remedy these inconveniences, one of the most extraordinary projects that ever was conceived is now carrying into execution. A canal has been dug from the Helder to Amsterdam, across the whole of North Holland; and this work, which would be so extraordinary in any country, seems still more singular in the midst of

seas and waters which surround it on all sides, and appear to render it at once superfluous and impossible. For an extent of nearly thirty leagues a canal has been dug, or is still digging, one hundred and twenty feet broad, and twenty-five deep. The canal of Languedoc is on an average only forty feet broad and six deep. When this work is finished, the whole military and mercantile navy of the most maritime nation of the Continent, will sail between the flocks and wind-mills. The present king, who is remarkable for his desire to immortalize his reign by great enterprises, has taken extraordinary interest in this, and has personally attended to the direction of the works, They were commenced only two years ago, and the canal is already complete from Amsterdam to Alckmaer (June 1822). The total expense is estimated at ten or twelve millions of florins (about a million sterling.) Persons who are interested in maintaining things as they are—those who have a natural aversion to innovations (and there are more in Holland than elsewhere), have declaimed against this project, and maintained that the Dutch had hitherto done very well without it. It is very certain that this change will injure and even ruin many persons ; but its advantages for commerce, and to the country which it will traverse, seem not to be doubtful.

The works now carrying on at Alckmaer are immense. That the canal might pass into the town, it was necessary to make it describe a curve, and it is precisely at the bottom of this enormous semicircular basin that the greater part of the workmen were engaged. On the same spot there was formerly a canal for the internal navigation, of the usual dimensions. Not to interrupt this navigation, the first operation has been to dig another canal, the same size as the first, and parallel to it, into which the water has been turned. When we look at the present works, the dry bed of the old canal appears hardly below the level of the ground, and the greatness of the works is rendered more striking by the comparison. The sight of this vast abyss was extremely interesting. Thousands of wheel-barrows were continually ascending and descending the mountains of soil cast up on each side of the canal, and which thus doubled its depth. When we saw all the pains necessary to load and carry away one of these barrows, we could not venture to calculate how many times the same operation must be repeated to dig to this depth a whole country. The worst is, that while so much pains is taken to bring water, it costs almost as much to take it away; for that which in this sponge-like soil everywhere springs up under the feet of the

workmen, throws very great difficulties in their way. These are surmounted by means of chain pumps, fixed for this purpose at certain intervals, and at a great expense.

Leaving Alckmaer we quitted the paved causeway, but the road is however good, and, like those in Switzerland and the south of France, the villages are scattered over a boundless horizon, and the corn fields are mingled with pastures. We soon came again to the canal, and travelled a considerable way along its banks. The earth taken from its bed is piled up in the form of an amphitheatre, and sometimes in insulated pyramids. The most various and curious ingredients compose this immense mass of *debris*. An extremely fine white sand covers a yellowish clay, traversed by feruginous veins, which at first sight you might take for blood. Below, that is to say, at the depth of 15 or 25 feet, are prodigious strata of perfectly black turf. Shells every where shine among the mass. The three kingdoms are confounded together; and this vast incision through a whole country would afford the most ample materials for observation to a geologist, desiring to study the anatomy of this curious country.

Scattered on these artificial mountains, or in the intervals which separate them, are myriads of miserable huts of straw, turf, and sometimes of

boards. There lie, pêle mêle with their families, the refuse of the diverse nations of which the legions of workmen employed on the canal, are composed. There are above ten thousand of them, not a fourth part natives of the country, not one who appeared to be of the same race as the rich peasants whom we met on the road. Their ragged clothes were of gaudy colours, and had a foreign appearance ; their complexions betrayed by turns Russians and Indians, and the confused mixture of their savage cries, added to the strange effect of this picture. It was a colony of several leagues in extent of all the beggars in the universe, and their huts exceed in wretchedness and misery every thing that can be imagined. All this in the midst of a most highly cultivated country, the neatest dwellings, and the most wealthy population, resembled an encampment of barbarians.

It was here, however, that literature had fixed its abode, at least the only literature that we met with in Holland. A voice, sharp as the violin that accompanied it, issued from under one of those little red cloaks, which the gypsies wear in England. On hearing the well-known air of a favourite song among our peasantry, we were induced to approach. In the midst of these marshes, this melody of the mountains affected us like a

meeting with a countryman in a foreign land ; we thought we should know and understand the words. This, however, did not happen. But, on the other hand, they seemed greatly to interest the lazy groups who surrounded the singers, laughing aloud. This was natural, the ballad being entirely in their honour. For a *doit* we procured one of the innumerable copies of the poetry, in *patois*, which these vulgar muses liberally distribute. It recounted "the fine projects for establishing a grand and superb canal from Alckmaer to the sea ; the happiness of a labourer who had arrived at Alckmaer without work, and found employment on the canal." The piece finished by a formal declaration, that "it was among the workmen of the canal alone, that honest fellows were to be looked for." None of the auditors seemed to have any doubt upon the subject. This piece, which is unique in its kind, deserves to be translated entire, and submitted, as a means of encouragement, to the consideration of whoever directs a work of this kind. It remains to be known, whether the time which these gentlemen lost in hearing their praises, was made good by the emulation which they inspired. At all events, we could not expect to see Hippocrene issue from the midst of these marshes.

The chain pumps, placed at intervals, with their

enormous straw roofs, and their great circumference, contrasted with the wretched huts of the labourers, and added to the singularity of the scene. We left the canal to ascend the dike of the Zyp-Polder, and thus make ourselves acquainted with the incredible result of that system ; which, while it brings the sea at an immense expense into the midst of the country, likewise repulses it at pleasure, to substitute for its waves the most fertile fields. *Polders* is the name given to these pieces of ground, which are much below the level of the sea, and were formerly lakes, gulphs, and marshes, but having been drained at different times, have become the most rich and productive part of the country. They are scattered over the whole territory of Holland, and are found principally in Zealand, Friesland, and North Holland properly so called. Those in this latter province are the most numerous and remarkable. On every side you see verdant ramparts wind above the horizon, and perfectly regular with respect to their elevation. These are the dikes which are necessary to protect each of these sub-marine domains, and on the summit of which, as on the walls of ancient Babylon, there is a very good road. It is traced on the thick verdure which covers all the rest of the dike, but it is very narrow, has no fence, and consequently

is often dangerous. But to compensate for this inconvenience, you have an extensive prospect, which, in this country, is an advantage not to be despised. The meadows here are already much richer than in the environs of Haarlem, and the enormous narrow-tailed sheep of the Texel begin to be mixed with the cows in the immense tract which stretches out before us.

We were obliged to quit the lake, and while it extended to the right, towards Medemblick, we laboured through the sand, towards the last habitation of these deserts. It is worthy of its melancholy name, *de Zand*, (the Sand). The place itself, and still more its environs, are horrible. Before you arrive at it, you meet with some *country seats*, as they are called; but it must be confessed, that they are more ugly than is allowable, and that art thus torturing rebellious nature, amidst these marshes, inspires an unpleasant sensation. The trees shew contortions more forced and more ridiculous than in any other place; all the forms are more square, all the waters more sluggish; and this wide extent of sand, which inundates the avenues, covers the plantations with dust, sticks to the varnish, and chokes up the canals, shows the folly of attempting to make any thing elegant and pleasing in such a place. At this last halt of *the Sand*, there is life, bustle,

large hoods, little cabriolets, bad beer, Cumin cheese, and the canal with its savage hordes. There is besides some traffic. People who have arrived from the Poles, the Indies, Newfoundland, &c. in ships bound for Amsterdam, generally grow impatient at the Helder, and think of leaving it by land; they endeavour to cross these sands in some country cart, or embark in the slow Treckschuit, which will take them for a trifle, by a series of small canals, to the borders of the Y; thus, of ten persons who meet at Zand, there are nine who come from the remotest parts of the world, and as the old canals, which are but little attended to in these deserts, were interrupted for about a league, we saw some specimens of persons from all parts of the universe, who, with their bundles under their arms, were endeavouring to make their way through these impenetrable morasses.

Near to Zand, they were building the immense sluices necessary to make the canal descend with due precaution into the Polder. Worthy of the rest of the works, these oval basins, which are to have a much greater depth than the canal, require still more labour. The workmen were employed in forming the ground on which they were to be constructed, that is to say in driving piles into the ground, which was to be paved over, before

it was buried under the waters. The rammers acted in this abyss with a force in proportion to the work to be done; and the groups of little living machines attached to the fifty subdivisions of the same cable, formed a moving pyramid, which was very curious. They shook every thing around them, but their energy and their steadiness did not strike us as at all remarkable. The lugubrious cry of the English sailors pulling at the same rope was not heard, nor did we find that unity of efforts which increases in so great a degree the power of drawing in a numerous group. Forests of the largest pines of Norway, were piled up on the edge of the basin, destined to be buried under the earth, which was to be covered with thick masonry, which would itself be forty feet under water. It seemed impossible to bury such masses in a soil which appeared to be compact, and to have no room for them. We could hardly believe our own eyes, when we saw them sink down gradually under the strokes of the iron rammer. Beams of oak fifty feet long and five square, lying on the ground, seemed but of a very ordinary size, and in proportion with the rest.

Proceeding from Zand to the Helder by land, we take the high road which runs along the borders of the Western Downs. By sea, boats are

used, but we went in our carriages in the same manner as the Jews left Egypt. All the maps indicate, as being under water, or making part of the Zuyder Zee, the straight line which we followed. The fineness of the weather, the drought, and one of those changes, which are so frequent in Holland, had rendered the immense beach passable, solid, and far superior to the sandy route through which travellers generally have to labour. This beach, which bears the name of *Kerass*, is still covered at times by the waters. A few tracks of wheels, frequently interrupted, were the only indication of the course we had to follow. Our amiable guide in this excursion, who had not returned to the country since 1813, when he took possession of it in the name of his king, seemed not to think that nature should throw more obstacles in his way than the garrisons had done.

We were soon in an absolute desert, and for two or three hours there was nothing to remind us that we were near an inhabited country. An immense heath, pools of water alternating with a few tufts of broom, in the distance the gloomy wall of the down, blending with the clouds; such was the prospect we had constantly before us, and no small portion of faith was necessary, to persuade ourselves that in this country, which

seemed to terminate in the waves, we should soon see cannon, French wine, luxury, and all the wonders that were promised us. But it must not be imagined that the picture was without life, or that we were destitute of society. The whole desert was in motion. Having taken refuge in a territory which they did not expect would be disputed with them, the various species of birds which inhabit marshy countries had collected in innumerable flocks. The wild geese, the lapwings, and above all the sea swallows, surrounded us on all sides, and made a noise of which it is impossible to give an idea. Some received us with perfect indifference, others attacking our horses with their bills and wings, rendered them impatient, and thus exposed us to considerable danger. Of all the inhabitants of this beach, the most terrified were the myriads of rabbits which lived pell-mell among all these birds. At length, both parties having passed through the adventure safe and sound, we returned to the deluge of sand on the high road, and behind one of its thousand undulations, we all at once saw a hollow which we comprehended could not be entirely the work of chance, and a little red and blue object, which an attentive examination told us was neither a goose nor a rabbit. It was the Helder, its first ditches, and

its advanced sentinels. We had almost forgotten that we were to see any thing in this country but wild fowl making game of us.

This distant coast, and the adjacent island of the Texel, have been the theatre of numerous battles. Ruyter and Van 'Tromp immortalized these seas in times that may now be called remote. In our days (in 1799) the English made a landing and penetrated to Bowerwyck, where, being repulsed by General Brune, they left no traces of their attempt upon the Continent but the name of a little street in Paris. It is from the Texel that the great fleets sail for the Indies; and on these shores, which are so dangerous on account of their sandbanks and currents, in these solitudes, where it is difficult to conceive that human beings can dwell, the courage and energy of the Dutch have been displayed with the most surprising lustre. The ocean has encroached upon the whole country, has swept away and swallowed up parts of the land, leaving others bare; has separated all these islands, which formerly made but one continent, and even now threatens to carry all away. The defence has been worthy of the attack, and has hitherto been successful. The whole point, or rather when it is seen near, the very rounded extremity of the continent on this side, and on an arc of a circle of several leagues, in the middle of

which is placed the Helder, has been embanked, that is to say, really created, and furnished with a vast breastwork, which is proof against the waves and the most violent storms. The two extremities of Holland which are the most exposed, destined to serve as out-works to their country, which they preserve from certain destruction, and perhaps to protect all central Europe, we mean the Dikes of the Helder, and of West Cappellen in Zealand, shew what perseverance and courage can effect ; and, opposing so powerful a barrier to the fury of the waves, they appear to be the work of the Creator rather than of the creature.

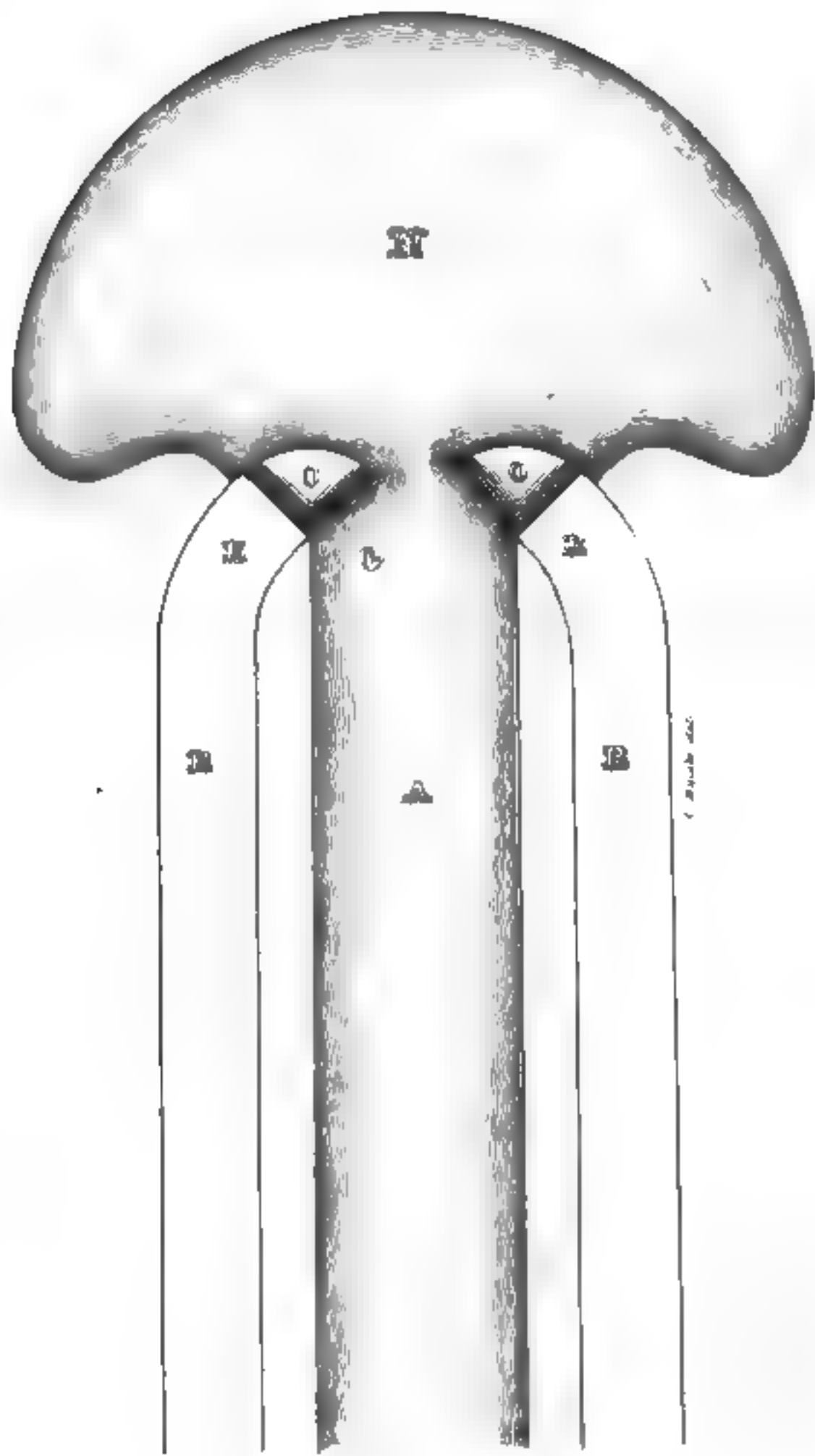
The great dike of the Helder, which is nearly two leagues in length, is forty feet broad at the summit, over which there is a very good road. It descends into the sea by a slope of two hundred feet, inclining about forty degrees. The highest tides are far from covering the top ; the lowest are equally far from shewing the base. At certain distances, enormous buttresses, broad and high in proportion to the rest, and constructed with still greater solidity, project several hundred toises into the sea. This artificial and gigantic coast is entirely composed of blocks of granite, all brought from Norway ; and these masses, which look as if it were impossible to move them, are levelled and squared like a pavement. The

number of rocks which are seen at one view, is sufficient to confound the imagination. How much more, then, when we think on the quantities buried beneath the waves, to serve as the foundation of such mountains. They were repairing, almost entirely from precaution, a part of the Dike where the repeated efforts of the ocean had left a slight trace. The simplicity with which the workmen set about it, seemed to us very remarkable. Three stakes fastened together at one end, and with the other fixed between the rocks, served to support a double pulley, over which a rope was passed. To one of the ends of this rope was fixed a large pair of pincers, contrived in such a manner as to hold more firmly as the rope is pulled at the other end. A man fixes the pincers to the rock which is to be raised, loosens it as well as he can with an iron crow, and when he has assisted his comrade to raise it to a proper height, he squares it again as it is suspended in the air, prepares its bed, and replaces it with a silence, ease, and composure, which are really perfect in their kind, and characteristic of their country. One of the greatest securities of this dike, and which contributes the most to keep it in good condition, is the prodigious quantity of sea weed (Varec) with which it is covered. This unctuous and polished plant, makes the

waves glide over its surface. They cannot remove it, and find no interstice to penetrate between the blocks. It is said, that the expense of keeping in repair the dike of West Capellen, amounts annually to 75,000 florins. That of the Helder cannot cost much less.

We proceeded on foot along the edge of these magnificent ramparts for half an hour, to the port of the, Nieuwediep, and its superb road. This port, the safest and finest which Holland possesses on the ocean, did not exist thirty years ago ; the oldest works are not of a remoter date than 1796 Others, much more remarkable than the first, have been now made, which go much further into the open sea. The waves, by means of immense jetties, are conducted into an artificial strait, making two bends, and the largest vessels entering full sail, are sheltered against every wind. But it was not a favourable moment to judge of the activity of the port, which could not offer any thing new, except to those of the party who had never seen any other. It cannot be compared for the number of merchantmen; to Hamburg, nor, for men of war, to Portsmouth. Most of the vessels were Americans ; and the elegance of their form distinguished them from all others. They carry on commerce as Buonaparte did war, by surpassing their competitors in rapidity ; they

carry much less than others, but they are such fine sailors, that they perform two voyages while the others make only one. The Dutch vessels which we saw there had nothing remarkable, nothing national in them, except silence, neatness, and want of elegance. A large dismasted ship of war, which rose like a tower among the smaller vessels, was pointed out to us as a prison ship. It was in too good a condition, too handsome, too superior to the horrible hulks which disgrace the Thames, for us to believe that it was destined to the same purpose as they are; we must then accuse of voluntary cruelty, a nation which we should so much regret to blame. The officers in the cabins appeared to us too gay for us to take them to be prisoners or jailers. Faithful to their habits on the ocean, these gentlemen had recourse to their telescopes to observe us as we approached. The only really curious and new things which we saw in this port were the sluices, and particularly those called fan sluices, said to be recently invented by Mr. Blancke, chief engineer to the navy. The problem to be resolved, was to shut the sluice against the rising tide. The means employed appeared quite simple and evident as soon as it was discovered. However, nobody had thought of it: it was exactly like the egg of Christopher Columbus. The current has



THE FAN SUCTOR AT THE HILDER.

been employed against itself, by making it serve to turn the sluice. Let us suppose the sluice opened at G, and the current of the tide A, ascending rapidly into the interior bason N ; if for any urgent reason it is wished promptly to shut the gates of the sluice, no human force could prevail against the violence of the waves. Then they open two little sluices, or lateral gates at O, communicating with the principal sluice by two subterraneous canals, B, into which the water rushes with violence. This mass of water, coming in contact at E with the second limb of the gate, constructed in the form of a fan or quadrant, tends to push it before it, consequently to make it turn round the pivot, G, and thus to close the sluice. When the two currents are thus brought into equilibrium, the slightest impulsion is sufficient to open or shut it. This contrivance, which is continually in use, will make an epoch in the hydraulic system of Holland.

We may conceive what must be the size, and the strength of these sluices, intended to open a free communication, at pleasure, between the sea and the interior of the country, that is to say, with the canals which intersect it in every direction. A series of sluices is intended to conduct the waters into the great canal which is now making ; another is to communicate with the interior

basins or docks. To support the efforts of the waves, which are always in motion, of the tides which are often excessive, art and force have exhausted their combinations. To afford a passage to the largest vessels, the proportions are necessarily gigantic ; and if we reflect that these works, the only bulwarks of the country, would give it up to destruction if they were forced in a single point, if they yielded to an enemy which is continually acting against them, these beams acquire in the eyes of the beholder, an importance, and a solemnity, which one cannot comprehend at a distance ; and, even there, it is impossible not to see in the arm which has fixed them, and which directs them at will, the depository of the power which has said to the ocean, "*Thus far shalt thou go, and no further.*" We walk with respectful emotion on these narrow bridges suspended at the gates of the ocean. These Dutchmen, otherwise so phlegmatic, so insipid, and so uninteresting, become greater in our eyes, and inspire us with a sort of admiration, when we observe their coolness in braving the tempests, their courage in subduing the waves, and the tranquillity with which, placed behind a frail plank, and below the storms, they continue their occupations with perfect presence of mind.

The inner basin, containing the buildings of

the Admiralty, and its immense magazines, has nothing remarkable, and is not to be compared to London or Woolwich. There is nothing interesting, except the dry dock which terminates it. This last is oval, entirely lined with masonry; and its sides, furnished with flights of steps in every direction, contract towards the bottom so as to imitate the form of a ship. It is here that the vessels are brought to repair. As soon as they have entered, the basin is drained, and all the sides of the vessel are easily accessible. This basin is separated from the first great reservoir by means of what is called a *bateau porte* (boat gate). This floats above a frame placed in such a manner, that descending to a level with the surface of the water, it accurately fits it, and cuts off all communication between the water in the two basins. The whole operation on these occasions is simple, silent, and, as it were, invisible. The two basins being full of water, and consequently the *bateau porte* afloat, it is turned aside to admit the vessel which is to be repaired. The *bateau porte* being replaced, a valve at the lower part is opened, and it gradually descends till it fills its frame. A steam engine empties the basin in a few minutes. The workmen descend the fine stair-cases, and examine, in the most convenient manner, what part of the ship requires

repair. When the work is done, the bateau porte is emptied, and rises to its place. It is again turned aside, and the vessel quits the basin to brave new storms. Scarcely a single workman is to be seen.

We returned to our inn across many meadows, and particularly over many canals, which was by no means agreeable. We might have fancied ourselves in America, after having journeyed so long by sea. The signs, the dresses, the language, and the productions of the United States, all contributed to the illusion; and, notwithstanding what put us in mind of England, we could not be deceived; for the most decided hatred of Great Britain, and the greatest good-will for the sailors of New York and Boston, were manifested in various ways. It is not easy to guess what will become of this little town of the Helder, unless it is to embark altogether for the New World, if the maritime war does not begin again, and if a canal is finished, which will remove to the distance of a league, all the traffic by water and by land. The Helder has no communication with the sea. One of the most singular consequences of this nature of the coasts, and of the measures taken to strengthen them, is, that the line of defence cannot be any where interrupted or make any thing resembling a port. Only

some of the boldest fishermen endeavour, in calm weather, to suspend their boats to the rocks of the dike. The only circumstance which can preserve to the Helder some degree of importance, will be to serve as a means of communication between the world and the insulated forts on the borders of the ocean; a melancholy and gloomy abode, to which we do not conceive how any person can voluntarily suffer himself to be banished. The impossibility, on this remote shore, in the midst of the waves, of procuring any fish, and on the other hand, the abundance of Bourdeaux wine, of excellent quality, and reasonable price, struck us as a double singularity. The promenade which we made on the dike at sunset, presented a magnificent sight, but for which we were more prepared. If we were allowed to say that there are prospects which, though less brilliant than those of the lake of Geneva, make impressions more profound, we should certainly place among the number, that which this coast afforded. When standing on one of the pieces of this enormous mole, rendered so brilliant in the sun by the vapours, and the unctuous plants which cover it, you contemplate these dark blue waves which come from the ends of the world to break at your feet, the imagination as it were flies

to meet them towards the icy pole whence they proceed. When we reflect on the position of this rock borne from Norway, on which you are placed, on this advanced post in the midst of the storms which press on all sides upon a shore situated below them, on these deserts habitually covered with the waves which separate you from all civilization, and the whole *terra firma* ; this abode, in short, which is entirely factitious, which seems to be an encroachment upon the ocean, whose domain has been invaded ; then the effect of the sea, which is always so striking, becomes greater and more solemn than ever. Man feels himself very little, and very mean in the presence of this severe and hostile nature ; but he recovers his self-respect, when he reflects that it was creatures like himself who subdued this abyss, and turned this chaos to advantage. Opposite you, beyond the sea which has forced a passage between land formerly united, the isle of the Texel displays its fantastic and irregular forms, through an atmosphere which is always clouded. You think you distinguish the shores where the birds deposit thousands of eggs, as an inviolable retreat ; and where a small number of shepherds, beaten by perpetual storms, tend their innumerable flocks, in a costume which has not under-

gone any change during the lapse of several centuries.

It is a singular abode, which the waves incessantly assail on all sides, land which the waters often carry away, houses communicating with each other only by pile-work, and hardly ever with the civilized continent. On the left bank, which is rounded towards the open sea, the batteries of the forts alone indicate the presence of man, and break the dull uniformity of the prospect. The flags floating on the right in the port of the Nieuwediep, offer a picture of civilization under a more pleasing form. The road shows its fleets at anchor, and from time to time some large vessel hidden under its cloud of sails issues from the motionless group to reach the open sea.

The isle of Vieringen, the last production of these ever restless waters, is blended in the distant horizon, with the grey sky that overhangs its marshes. Below your feet, some boats hanging to the rocks, shew how inhospitable this coast is to man. The thousands of sea mews, which assemble with great cries at the foot of each jetty, seem to proclaim that this country is more friendly to them. The strait is filled with a thousand vessels different in form, origin and destination, and crossing each other in every direction. Some came from the whale-fishery on the banks

of Newfoundland, others had been subduing, in the burning waves of Sunda, the sultan of Palembang, whose defeat is the last warlike exploit of the Dutch in their colonies. Lastly, on the left, the strait, gradually growing broader, terminates in the vast blue expanse, the limits of which the eye seeks in vain. This picture moves the soul, and fills us with profound reflections.

But if it was brilliant at sun-set, the effect was more pleasing two hours later, when it was illumed by the moon. The shores and the buildings, but faintly seen as in twilight, were still more interesting; the solemn silence of nature disposed us to meditation. The low murmur of the waves breaking against the dike, the rippling of the water, furrowed by a fishing-boat, which glided along like a shadow in the distance, a few signals, or the solitary songs of some sailors on duty, alone interrupted, at intervals, the majestic silence of the scene. The following morning, at sun-rise, the prospect was again different; notwithstanding the progress of time, every thing seemed younger than the day before; the ocean appeared less awful, the verdure more lovely. Before day-break we quitted our hammocks (for the hotel of Seeburg, the last house on the Continent, very much resembles a ship), and proceeded towards the forts, by a road opposite to

that we had taken the day before. But it was still upon the dike; and there, as elsewhere, the sea-fowl, our only but inevitable companions in these solitudes, pursued us with their noisy society. It was impossible not to see some coquetry in the chattering and clapping of the wings of the clouds of sea-swallows, which were dressing their plumage on the beach. Leaving on our left the great fort, to which successive changes of fortune have given the names of Fort-La-Salle and the Hereditary Prince, we were again in the Sands and the most horrible downs, before we reached the little fort of Morland, situated at the extremity of the coast facing the open sea. It is a square fortress, extremely plain, merely composed of a dry moat, giving light to the casements of two batteries turned towards the sea, and of a high tower which is intended to serve as a light-house, and a guide for ships. The whole is an advanced post, designed to give signals on the approach of vessels which seem suspicious. Nothing is yet finished, and it is doubtful whether the object can ever be attained; the sands, moved by the wind, fill the ditches as fast as they are dug. There again the perseverance and energy of the Dutch appear in the strongest light. It may be easily conceived what trouble was required to raise such a mass on a hill of moving

sand. The carts loaded with materials endeavouring to reach it, sunk to the axle in a mountain which they ploughed up in attempting to ascend it. From the top of these ramparts, we had the same melancholy prospect as at Brederode. Here the view of this ocean of sand was even more gloomy. We were nearly surrounded by it; and some sentinels, stationary on their bastions at a distance, did not dispose us to prefer to the desert, the degree of civilization which their presence indicated. In the back ground of a scene, which banished all ideas of a pleasing and easy intercourse, the sea alone appeared friendly and practicable; and this was the sole object of every wish. It seems inconceivable, that amidst so many horrors of all kinds, confined between marshes and downs, sentinels and the desert, beings should have fixed their abode, who have not been condemned to it. Between Fort-la-Salle and the above mentioned little fort, below the dike and the downs, which entirely separate it from the sea, there are about fifty houses, or rather huts. It is possible, however, that nobody has the misfortune to live in them, for being obliged to wind along between these ruined cabins, we saw only two or three shadows in rags, that scarcely looked like human creatures. The intervals between them were filled

with mud, broken tiles and bricks; the windows were without glass, the doors without panels, the roofs without covering; a foetid odour of dried fish was the only indications that these places had any inhabitants, and yet it was in Holland, in North Holland, in the province of slippers, lace, polished streets, of riches, and of health; in the province too, it must be confessed, where contrasts of this kind are the most common. But this latter, which was the greatest and the most painful, had unfortunately a very simple cause. This hamlet was the appendage of the fort, and its population belonging to the neighbouring garrison, was composed of individuals in its train.

On returning to the Helder, we traversed the great fort in its whole length, its innumerable draw-bridges, and its works, extending half a league into the sands. We sincerely pitied these people buried in such an abode, and remarked with interest the little tower where Admiral V. concealed himself from his countrymen in 1813, when the governor of North Holland came to take possession of the fort in the name of the Prince of Orange. M. de V. commanded the northern coasts of the French empire; he remained faithful to the master whom he had served, and the situation might have been painful to him

or to others, when his countrymen and friends came to expel him from this post, in the name of the prince who had formerly been their common sovereign. The frigate which was to spare him this disagreeable meeting, did not come in time, and the admiral was obliged to view from his concealment the act of taking possession. However, justice is now done him, and his perseverance in the course which he had once adopted, has extorted, as it almost always does in the long run, the approbation even of those persons whose interests were the most affected by it. Only it is said that his sovereign, who justly requires his subjects to speak Dutch, and always addresses them in that language, affected to speak only French to M. V., considering him as one of that nation. It is generally known, that he has met with the most flattering reception in France. The protestants of the kingdom, in particular, have reason to congratulate themselves in having acquired so honourable and zealous a patron.

Crossing the neighbouring marshes, where they were busy in milking the cows which covered them, we thought only of our supposed abode in North Holland, and forgetting the horrors of the corner in which we were, enjoyed ourselves in drinking the warm milk. But here too the neighbouring garrison had exercised its influence; these

ill-attended cows, the thin milk, offered with such a bad grace, the dirty and broken vessels, clearly evinced all the inconveniences of such a proximity, and the great difference in industry and cleanliness between country people who are their own masters, and the population which is formed about all barracks. Here the contrast was as striking as possible. It is much less so at Potsdam and Spandau, where the fortresses are insulated in the desert, than by the side of the Dutch Polders.

From the Helder, where we left our horses, we returned as well as we could to Zand, in the midst of sands, and to the society we had the day before. At Zand we took another road, and turning to the east proceeded by the bridge of Schägen. It was there that we really became acquainted with North Holland and its national beauty. Hitherto we had seen splendid seats, towns, works, birds, and forts, but we had only formed conjectures respecting the country, its inhabitants, their industry and manners. Astonished as we were at the beautiful village of Schägen, it was so far surpassed by those that we saw afterwards, that it is unnecessary to dwell upon it. At a short distance the ruins of the castle of Outremont have a fine effect in the landscape, but they excite surprise, as something out

of its place, and we ask how ruins whose appearance announces a long lapse of ages, and an old country, are found in a spot which looks as if it were quite new, and had risen but yesterday from the bosom of the waters. In proportion as we advanced, the improvement in the cultivation increased in an extraordinary degree. To the heaths surrounding the Helder succeeded the richest plains ; to pasturages solely destined for the grazing of cattle, meadows which were ready for mowing. The cattle became finer, and more and more numerous. The multitudes of horses, cows, and sheep, which filled the horizon, exceeded imagination ; and each of these beasts was as remarkable in its kind as their number was extraordinary. The cows and horses, all of a colossal size, were marked in a singular manner. The cows had not, like those of Switzerland, the line of the back of a lighter colour than the rest, with the sides dark, and the shoulders spotted ; broad black stripes, nearly rectangular, run into a white ground, in the most singular manner. They have a very handsome make, open chest, the haunches broad and very high. The horses of two colours, with their long flowing manes, and their tails sweeping the ground, put us in mind of the coursers of Night, which are represented by painters, pieballed in this manner, and added

greatly to the picturesque effect of the whole. The most beautiful trees, grouped rather irregularly, about the houses, roads, and canals, shewed a part of the native graces of which they are too often deprived. The freshness of the verdure, the elegant windings of a thousand canals, the brilliancy of all these pretty houses which seemed to have just come from the hands of the painter, the roofs covered with shining tiles, the bridges painted of the most lively colours, and looking at a distance like rainbows, all combined, formed a picture of remarkable richness and elegance.

We wound along excellent roads, shaded with verdant avenues, and which had not either the stiff regularity, or the hardness, or the toll-gates, of the causeways; the canals crossed the country in every direction, and the sails of the vessels mingled with the trees. The boats loaded with hay, hidden beneath the grass which covered them, seemed to glide spontaneously along the surface of the water. If we add to this picture the thousands of swans, surrounded by their families, majestically sailing along all these canals, and the peasant women with their golden frontlets, the lace veils floating on their shoulders, and their Madonna-like countenances, the reader will believe this description to be a mere creature

of imagination, yet nothing can be more correct. The original is found in the half of North Holland. Neither the vallies of Switzerland nor Scotland can anywhere boast an *ensemble*, so rich, so brilliant, and so varied; but the meanest hut of the Alps, with its large thatched roof reaching to the ground, the little grove of firs which keeps off the avalanche, the mountain pasture from which the flocks concealed among the clouds are heard without being seen, the torrent with its cascades, and the often rough tones of the *ranz des vaches* make a much more lively impression. The effect is here exactly the inverse to that produced by the sight of the sea, as viewed from the Helder, and compared to the lake of Geneva: here, every thing is too flat, the waters too stagnant, every thing is too perfect, neat, and well arranged. There is in the atmosphere, in the habitations, in the quadrupeds, including even the goats, of which, what we should not expect, there is a great number, something heavy, factitious, inert, and, if we might say so, essentially prosaic. The little cabriolets of the farmer, driving at full speed, in the midst of this country, are a singular exception, which does not, however, diminish the impression on the whole. It is a charming country, but only to the eyes, which have no impression to communi-

cate to the soul. It is Arcadia without inspiration, without the sky of Greece, without that spark which made it the country of poetry and enthusiasm. To comprehend the singular sensation which one experiences in travelling through such a country, you must fancy yourself as rubbing your eyes every moment to know whether you are awake; as believing that the landscape deceives you, and cannot be so in reality. This contrast augments the effect, and perhaps the admiration of the beholder, but it lessens the charm; you are ill at ease, as a man who fears to be deceived; you indulge in no reverie, and almost in no thought, in a country which is entirely manufactured, and in fields where nature is sought in vain.

The road by Zand-Wind and Nieuwkoop grows always more and more beautiful, as far as Rustenburg. Situated at the confluence of two canals, this charming village, with its bridge, its port, its avenues, and its thousand gay colours, is the prettiest place that we have met with, and might be presented as a fair specimen of North Holland, and its extraordinary prosperity. It excites much more admiration, and, at the same time, gives a much more just and advantageous idea of the country in general, than the village of Broek, so ridiculously celebrated, which happily

resembles no other. Yet who, beyond the place itself, ever heard the name of Rustenburg? Everywhere it would afford a charming prospect; but, after having seen, only two leagues off, the country in all its primitive horror, and the waves and sand which threaten to swallow up this barren coast, one cannot help having a little faith in magic.

To reach Rustenburg we had gone along the side of the Hugo-Ward, the second Polder, which is still more remarkable than the Zyp, which we had first seen, but not so much so as the Schermer-Meer, which we came to afterwards. The latter, the most central of all, is next to the famous Beemster, the most interesting for agriculture, and particularly for the works employed to drain it; we descended into it, and examined it minutely.

To drain one of these morasses, or inland seas, and render it fit for cultivation, the first operation consists in damming it in with a rampart of earth sufficiently strong and high to prevent the water from flowing into it. This being done, wind-mills are erected on the edge of the dike, each of which works a pump; and then the mills alone, without any person to superintend them, effect the draining of the marsh. Thanks to the absence of all hills which might keep off the wind, and to

the neighbourhood of the sea which brings continual breezes, the wind-mills in Holland are almost always sure of being able to work; and besides, as the Dutchmen are never in a hurry, the undertakers wait very patiently at home, only visiting from time to time their obedient workmen, to see what progress they have made. As the mills drain the water from the marsh, they empty it into a canal, opened on the other side of the dike, which conveys it to the sea. But most frequently the whole of this great operation cannot be performed at once; and where the marshes are of too great a depth below the surrounding country, two or three dikes and as many canals are made, at different levels, rising by degrees to the upper canal, in which the whole terminates. In the Schermer-Meer, for instance, there are four stages of canals. Every piece of ground forms a long parallelogram, is separated from the next by a broad deep ditch, which, in reality, is a first canal. It serves to convey part of the harvest; to carry off the water, which, but for this, would continue on the ground; but, above all, as an enclosure, which renders it unnecessary to guard the flocks, which do not attempt to pass over this obstruction. The canals communicate, by means of the above-mentioned pumps, with those of the second stage along the roads; lastly,

Two or three upper canals traverse the whole of the Polder like great arteries, carrying all these lower waters into the one grand canal made below the dike, and immediately connected with the sea. Nothing can be more curious than the sight of these masses of water, situated side by side, on four different levels. In general, completely separated, they are made to communicate whenever it is desired, and the precise proportion which is thought necessary may be established between them. This girdle of wind-mills, which announces at a distance the frontiers of the Polder, has the appearance of sentinels placed to guard the entrances, and Don Quixote would have been quite at home among them.

It is easy to conceive the extreme fertility acquired by land managed in this manner. Formed originally of mud, which was itself rich, it is covered almost all the year round with herds which contribute to its fertility. All the water which might be injurious is drawn off at pleasure, even to the last drop, by means of the pumps, and a regular and gradual irrigation is introduced at the most favourable moment, not only to refresh the soil, but also to spread equally the masses of manure, which, if accumulated in detached spots, would have done more harm than good. It may be imagined, that if we except this singular

branch of agriculture, all the rest must be very simple in a country nearly the whole of which consists of pasturage. It is very easy to have fine crops from little fields, which are covered with manure prepared in the winter. We perceived more rye than we should have expected; and a great deal of rape-seed and potatoes, far inferior in quality to those which grow in the downs.

The appearance of the Polder itself, when you have got into it, is very different from the upper country; and though more remarkable, it is decidedly less agreeable. At Rustenburg there is still a little disorder, life, and irregularity. There is an assemblage of houses, in the building of which we may believe the proprietors to have followed their own taste; but, in the Polder, there is no longer any illusion: each object reminds you that you are at the bottom of a lake, on a factitious soil, where every thing is calculated. When the draining is finished, the undertakers have very regularly portioned out the conquest they have made from the waters; they have divided and subdivided it into perfectly equal parts; they have dug canals, made roads, planted trees in perfect right lines, proscribed all curves, all variation in the distance, and placed at the head of each farm a square habitation, which is always similar to its neighbour. Very

accurately surrounded with twenty trees, often fine, but never graceful, these redoubts resemble neither farm-houses, which would be less carefully kept, and more animated, nor country seats where something could be dedicated to pleasure. Their large roofs, coming down nearly to the ground in four equal slopes, rest upon brick walls which are always neat but never elegant. They look as if they had just sprung up like mushrooms among the tufted grass which surrounds them, and which seems never to have been trodden under foot.

In going along the Schermer-Meer, we arrive at the point where the three Polders, the Hugsward, the Schermer-Meer and the famous Beemster meet. In the centre of this kind of triangle is built the pretty town of Schermer-Horn, the steeples of which, shining amidst the trees, command the superb basins which surround it; the streets extend along the high land in the three directions which are open to them, so as to give it a most singular form. In order to reach it, we had travelled along the course of the dike half way up. On the left, ten or fifteen feet above our heads, was the great canal, common to all these Polders, and the sails appearing above the trees every instant hid the sun from us. On the right, at the same distance below us, we saw the

same canals, wind-mills, the sails of which were hardly on a level with us, and in a hollow extending farther than we could see, the herds concealed in the tufted grass of the Polder. It was completely the world turned upside down. In some countries we are accustomed to see the sails of the wind-mills higher than the rudders of the ships, and the goats perched above the frogs; but in North Holland we must be contented to see every thing different from what it is elsewhere. For instance, when it is once decided that there must be water everywhere, between a man and his next neighbour, or even his own field, and that it is required to have the means of crossing this water, in one direction, on foot, while boats are sailing upon it in another; it is easy to suppose that the system adopted in the erection of bridges is an affair of the greatest importance, in order to reconcile the interests of all parties.

Accordingly bridges have been built which open in the middle by being raised up on each side; others which are pulled back like drawers, and others again which turn like the gates of sluices. It would be interesting to know the order of time in which these different methods have been adopted, and consequently which has been esteemed the best. We were not able to discover it exactly, but as far as appeared to us none of them

has any peculiar advantages above the others. Many bridges however are immoveable, and the vessels which have to pass under them must lower their sails, which is done with extraordinary address and celerity.

After having crossed one of the innumerable bridges, and walked for some time along the side of this immense fortress, of which each of the Polders looks like a bastion, we enjoyed a magnificent and very extensive prospect of the three vallies. The Beemster, which is the most remarkable of all these basins, displayed the branching heads of the fine trees with which it is filled. The sight of this forest, of which we could only see the summits, and which was defended on all sides by the girdle of wind-mills perched upon the dike, had something mysterious in it, which was well calculated to strike the imagination. Having descended into the interior of the Polder, we proceeded to add the testimony of our hands to that of our eyes, to convince ourselves of a thing which appeared to us too singular to be lightly believed; it was the mania of painting the trees; and it was but too real: the trunk and the lower branches of almost all the trees which surround these strange habitations, were of the same livery, that is to say, they were painted yellow, grey, or white, with black stripes.

It may be conceived how much this fashion adds to the rural appearance of the prospect ! But if it has any other advantages, they are not easy to be guessed ; it must however be believed, that so prudent a people must be able to give good reasons for so singular a custom. We were informed that the trees thus dressed were protected against the cattle and against the damp.

We travelled rapidly along these fine roads, without seeing any thing except those square redoubts, placed at some distance, hermetically closed, without traces of inhabitants, carts, implements, or smoke : and the small two-wheeled cabriolets, drawn sometimes by one and sometimes by two horses with a stout man in black and a woman in white, which crossed and passed us in all directions, were the only objects we saw on the road. They seemed very worthy to be the automata lodged in such boxes. We found it always more and more difficult to believe our travelling companion when he assured us that this country was really inhabited by living people. Losing our patience, we alighted before one of the smallest of these houses, while a little grass in a pail of water was given to our excellent horses, which since the preceding day had travelled twenty leagues at a rapid pace. Several of these habitations have on the side towards the

road, the famous chamber, which is opened only three times in a generation, at *baptism, marriage, and death*. The owners have taken, it is true, a sure method against the temptation of opening it too often; the door is nailed fast, and raised two feet above the floor. A moveable pair of steps is set before it when the room is used. Madame de Genlis assures us that she had been admitted into the interior of one of these apartments. The house before which we alighted had nothing of that kind: in front was a solid door, which stood open, and a hatch composed of bars, which was shut. Behind this entrenchment was the mistress of the house; we entered, and as we expected to find a state apartment, its brilliancy did not much surprise us. A stock of little shining slippers was ranged on both sides of the entry; the floor was composed of bricks varnished like a looking-glass; the chairs were made of cane and horse-hair woven in different shades; the walls, painted with the most lively colours, were adorned with pictures of various kinds; the tables were covered with gilt copper, and wax cloth; the chimney was fronted with tiles of painted porcelain, which seemed never to have been touched by the smoke, and the mantle-piece was surrounded with a festoon of glazed chintz of twelve or eighteen inches deep; the looking-glasses

placed in different parts of the room, were decorated in the same manner. In short, every article in the room on which any thing could stand, including the mantle-piece, was adorned with very beautiful china. Hoping to meet with some signs of life, we proceeded to the next room. There was the same splendour and the same silence. But for the total absence of dust, we might have imagined that nobody had been near this furniture for a hundred years. Yet it was here, as in the first apartment, that the family slept in a kind of boxes or cupboards in the wall, concealed behind the wainscot, and ranged in two tiers. Being completely hidden by little doors, painted as gaily as the rest of the wood-work, and shewing, when they are not closed, an opening two feet each way, bordered all round with festoons and lace, they appeared more as if destined to be the niche of a saint than the ordinary sleeping place of a Dutch farmer. The third apartment, still more remarkable, contained large wardrobes of inlaid work, beautifully polished, and with carpets resembling those of India. Resolved to find something in disorder, we came to a large apartment which served as a lumber room, coach-house, dairy, in a word, the theatre of all the less elegant operations of the household. There was not such a profusion of looking-glasses, curtains,

and varnish as in the first rooms, but the order and cleanliness of all the utensils and furniture which were those in daily use, were perhaps more remarkable. We arrived exactly at the moment when they were going to milk the cows ; for this purpose they are assembled in a small inclosure, which is surrounded by water on all sides, except that by which they enter, and which is closed with a strong gate. They remain there rather crowded together to the number of twenty-five to forty ; their fore feet are tied together, but in other respects they are perfectly free. These farms are on an average from twenty to thirty hectares of land, the chief part are the pastures ; they feed from fifteen to twenty-five cows, and two hundred sheep. One of these cows, taken at random, measured four feet to the withers ; they are milked three times a day ; and they yield then from twelve to eighteen quarts ; the cheese prepared from their milk is sold at three to fifteen French sous per pound, according to the quality.

The greater part of the cattle of North Holland, the cows, but particularly the oxen, are imported every year from Jutland. The cows remain only five months in the stable, from the 15th of November to the 15th of April. The minutest attention is paid to keep them clean and warm. For every head of cattle a tax is paid, called the horn money.

The little spots, surrounded with water, in which the cows are assembled to be milked, and where a great number of country-women are collected for that purpose, are called *melkplaats*. A gallant traveller pretends, that in crossing a meadow at this moment, you may fancy yourself at a village fête, worthy the pencil of Teniers. For our part, what seemed to us the most characteristic and the most unexpected, was the dirty appearance of these young nymphs; and, though some of them were pretty, the dust and dirt on their clothes gave them on the whole a disagreeable appearance; and the more so, as it was confined to them alone, and the utensils by which they were surrounded were remarkably bright. The oak pails, lined with brass, and varnished externally with glaring colours, such as blue or red, the smallest stools, the troughs round the house, all seemed as if they had never been used before.

Among the farmers of Guelderland we meet with customs which have been in vogue many centuries. On Whitsunday they assemble early in the morning, in companies, to attend to the fields, the young women, who are going to milk the cows, and to regale themselves with new milk. These excursions do not always end to the satisfaction of the whole company, and the shepherdess thus escorted often derives but little

gratification from it ; if she is unsociable, cross, slovenly, the first object that strikes her eyes is an ugly and ridiculous scarecrow, placed at the entrance of the meadow ; her more amiable companion finds in the neighbouring fields her most beautiful cow crowned with flowers.

We arrived just at the season of sheep-shearing. The national writers affirm that North Holland is the country which has the most flocks, and produces the finest wool in the kingdom, yet there is a difference, but the best is really superior to every other, and this is the produce of the Beemster. These sheep are very remarkable for their size, the beauty of their form, and the enormous quantity both of milk and wool which they yield, and the number of lambs they bear. Whatever be the weight of the fleece (it is said to amount to sixteen or seventeen pounds of wool) it is taken entire from the body of the animal, which runs away quite ashamed from under his coat, which retains all the forms of the body that it covered ; to produce this singular result it requires much patience, steadiness, and good temper in both parties. The sample of wool which we brought away was ten or eleven inches long. The people of the country assure us that the average length is fifteen inches. It was impossible for us to learn its price. It is not easy to make calcu-

lations on agricultural subjects with people whose language you do not understand, and with whose money you are unacquainted. It is also affirmed that the ewes may be milked twice a day, and give a quart each time.

We did not see any agricultural instruments particularly singular. It is in their canals, their mills, and the different degrees of moisture which result from them, that their whole secret consists. The only utensil that struck us was a sort of shovel, very long and hollow, which is used to throw water from the canals over the meadows, but particularly upon the linen in the numerous bleaching grounds. At length we returned to our carriage, and took a last view of the place that we were leaving. On the other side of the canal there was a very pretty church, its red arcades, its painted windows, rising majestically in the midst of, and above, the finest trees, had an appearance of calmness and solemn silence. It was the only church of the place, and every Sunday the rich, well-fed, and pious inhabitants come in their little carriages, each carrying under his arm a large bible studded with gold. The women wear large hoods lined with pink or blue silk, which are an essential part of the pretty head-dress that they are intended to protect.

As we approached Alckmaer we again came to the new canal in that part which is finished. We were still better able to judge of its vastness by comparing it with the three or four series of canals which we had still before our eyes. They differed likewise by the absence in the latter of the fine reeds which border all the others and make them appear to flow under a verdant arch.

From Alckmaer to Beverwyck we returned by the same road that we came. From Beverwyck we desired to go to Saardam; looking at the map, we perceived between these two villages a distance of about a league in a straight line, by water about two leagues; the only roads by which you can get at it by land make it more than seven leagues; all the part of the country which separates them being marshy, uninhabited, constantly intersected by small canals, and every body preferring to go by water. One road to go from Beverwyck to Saardam would take us back to Alckmaer and thence to Purmerende. The other road would lead to Beverwyck, to Haarlem, and thence to Amsterdam.

There was indeed a third way, namely to go along the little dikes which surround the Wyker-Meer between Beverwyck and Saar-

dam. This road seemed very short, but the innumerable sinuosities of the coast, which the dike had been obliged to follow in all its windings, tripled and quadrupled the distance. The night was dark, the causeway was narrow, in bad condition, the horses spirited, and during our stay at Haarlem every body had some story or other to tell us about the dikes and the frequent instances of falls from the top of them. We however set out, so great was our hurry to return, and almost always going on foot, we were far from making a rapid progress; but, however, at day-break we were within sight of Saardam.

Immortalised by a most extraordinary fact, why is the name of this place always corrupted and called by every body Saardam, whereas the abode of the Czar who worked there as a shipwright, ought to be called Zaandam, that is to say, the dike upon the Zaan? Its appearance as it is approached by land, and particularly from Beverwyck, is as singular in its way as the fact which has rendered it so celebrated. Imagine in a space of less than a square league, without trees or inequality of the ground, above two thousand wind-mills, some of them of prodigious size. And who would expect to find rising above these marshes and in the midst of

saws and wheels destined to make planks and oil, the most pleasing allegory and the most striking lesson of philosophy? The eye, ranging over this moving forest, observes at intervals little flags of various colours, fixed on the summit of the roofs; garlands of flowers and ribbons, entwined amidst the sails, go round with them, and crowns of the most brilliant colours suspended to the extremities of the sails describe a still larger circle in the air. It is in this manner that the people of Saardam announce their marriages; each different flag indicates a new wedding, but all the mills belonging to the same family have the same colours, and the aristocracy of the millers finds its account in this striking manner of proclaiming the number of their clients and friends. There is something more elegant and more elevated in this mode of announcing their good fortune than might be expected among these worthy people. In the same view, and in the midst of this joy and bustle, the motionless sails of some of these mills indicate the death of their proprietors.

These mills are employed for a thousand different purposes, besides the draining of the lands. The three principal are the manufactures of paper, of rape oil, and the sawing of planks.

There are few objects more curious than one of these great oil-mills, but the description would not be interesting except by entering into details which we should hardly be able to give with sufficient accuracy. The paper-mills are not different from those of other countries, but the attention paid to this manufacture has given to the paper of Holland a merited superiority; the careful selection of the rags, the perfection of the machinery employed in pounding them, the nature of the water, and the care taken in the sizing of the paper, are the principal causes of this success.

But it is not to see mills, however curious they may be, that people visit Saardam. The genuine tourist, when he is once landed, immediately inquires for the cottage of Peter the Great, and sets out on his pilgrimage to it. The way is interesting when it awakens in the mind all the ideas which are connected with it, and the importance of a step which had such a result. The weight which the empire founded by Peter the Great now has in Europe is a remarkable corollary to the residence of the founder in this dock-yard; but in itself the walk has nothing curious or interesting. We see nothing but a hut made of planks, consisting of two apartments, with nothing parti-

cular in the construction, and scarcely any other furniture than an old woman, who assures us that her parents had seen the Czar, and would willingly swear that she had seen him herself if she were urged. Of course the partition and the chimney piece are covered with a multitude of names. The most remarkable is that of the Emperor Alexander, who on a tablet of white marble, let into the wall for the purpose, has imitated the noble brevity of Catharine the Second, having carved on it the words *Petro primo Alexander primus*. But the governors and civil officers of the country, who accompanied the emperor on his visit, have thought it necessary to inform the world of it, and to add to this laconic phrase a long list of their titles. It remains to be proved whether posterity will judge that this measure was indispensable.

Besides its two thousand mills and this singular relic, Saardam has other claims to attention. This town which the imagination represents as so miserable a retreat, contains 50,000 inhabitants, and in its gardens and dwellings an extraordinary degree of luxury. Saardam is said to be situated on a river; but those who really think that this name can be given to the mass of water, called the Zaan, forget that a

running river is a thing impossible and unheard-of in this country. From Delft to the Helder there is so much water that it cannot stir, and this is so true that the Rhine, notwithstanding the rapidity of its course till it reaches this country, is completely impeded, and loses itself in the sands near Leyden. The most splendid and extraordinary embellishment which the attention lately bestowed upon the wood of the Hague has added to its former beauty, is the contrivance of a little cascade of two feet, which on Sundays gives the inhabitants during an hour or two the novel pleasure of the murmuring and rippling of the water.

It is nevertheless true that the mass of water which comes across Saardam to join the Wickermeer, has some resemblance to a river, or at least has more irregularity in its banks, and more motion on its surface than ordinary canals. The first habitations have been built in the two angles which are formed by the junction of the Zaan with the sea, and there among others is the cabin of the Czar. The town as it increased extended up the two banks, and at length, not to be too far from the port, it has encroached upon the river itself. The latter now communicates with the sea by means of four or five sluices. All the rest of this vast mouth has

been filled up, and they have erected a quay, a port, and a great number of houses, precisely in the midst of the waves. The pretty inn of La Loutre, where we lodged, was in this situation, and the vessels coming full sail, seemed much more likely to strike against the house than to find the narrow passage which was to convey them in safety to the open sea. The view of this long piece of water, with innumerable vessels on its surface, and bordered with trees, through which you see the shining polished tiles and beds of flowers, was extremely curious. At a distance, the ground appeared covered alternately with immense pieces of linen and pieces of wood almost as large; the bleaching grounds and dock-yards are combined with the branches of manufacture mentioned above, to employ and enrich this industrious population. The luxury which is the fruit of so much labour, is more simple, and in better taste, than that at Broek, and even in the environs of Amsterdam, as might be expected, there are no streets in a country where room is so valuable and carriages so rare. The quay, where the dikes terminate, is the only place where horses can be employed; but the promenade in the paths by the river side, with the vessels plying on one side, the mills on the

other, and the most beautiful flowers all around you, is far preferable to anything a high road could offer.

The port, on the other hand, has nothing worthy of remark, and the water is exceedingly dirty. The most curious vessel in it was a bark from Utrecht, with a cargo of water. Pressed on all sides by the waves, the unfortunate inhabitants have not a drop of water fit to drink; and they are obliged to do from necessity what we have seen the fine ladies of the Hague do from fashion, that is to say, send twenty leagues for water to drink. This precious commodity was on sale just as we arrived. The vessel was level with the water, its colour was blended with that of the mud that surrounded it, and it seemed difficult to understand how the little pump erected in the ship could distribute to the numerous applicants such pure and limpid water.

It was through the most disagreeable part of these marshes, which, by way of distinction, is called Waterland, that we continued our journey upon the dikes. Purmerende, towards which we were bending our course, is situated in an angle of the Beemster, opposite to the Schermer horn. We had gone round all the Polder. The town is nearly as large as Alck-

maer. Its steeples make a still more singular effect in the midst of the water, and as it is not situated on the high road from Batavia to Amsterdam, its inhabitants and inn-keepers, less accustomed to see strangers, have retained a still ruder originality. We were attracted by a horse-race, and arriving with a full recollection of Epsom and Newmarket, we were prepared to find but little similarity. In fact it is impossible for two things, called by the same name, to have less resemblance. The enormous coach-horses of Friesland and Jutland, which are saddled only once in their lives, and which do not gallop, but trot, have by no means the appearance of the same species of animals as those shadows, almost stretched along the ground, which fly over the English turf. The riders, the scene, the spectators, and the laws of the course, present the same contrast. Without the town, at the entrance of the fine Beemster, is a broad avenue, bordered with trees, and of course with canals; on the one side an extensive turf, on the other a green hill, the acclivity of which is pretty steep; it is the side of the dike which surrounds the Polder. At the summit is the general canal, which is always covered with vessels. This sandy avenue is the race ground, it is divided

in its whole length by a rope fastened to two posts, so as to make two roads of equal breadth. Only two horses run at a time, each on one side of the barrier. They set out according as they are entered in the list, and the same competitors make two or three races, as in a rubber at whist: two or three games are played, as the case may require. The horse which in the end has beaten all the other victors in these several races gains the prize, independently of the bets. The horses are ridden by their masters, if they are farmers; by the tenant, when the landlord is an inhabitant of the town; and the costume of all these jockeys is nearly uniform. They wear a cap of coloured cotton or of red cloth, trimmed with fur, a jacket, velvet breeches, blue stockings with embroidered clocks, enormous shoes with buckles and heavy spurs. The originality of this costume is surpassed only by that of the equipment of the horse. It is muffled up in a large carriage bridle with blinkers, a woollen cloth of every variety of colour, and an enormous *Pompoon*, placed on the stump of a tail which is left him. On the whole, the man and the horse have the same appearance of health, strength, and heaviness. The riders as they advance utter plaintive and frightful cries, and their whole air is

very different from the English jockeys, and for a very natural reason, which is the difference of the object aimed at. Here they have two things to do, to push their horse on, and to hinder him from galloping; the horse which gets into that pace losing all hopes of success: in consequence of this, the rapidity with which they learn to trot, is very extraordinary. The course, which was 400 toises, was run in a little less than two minutes. The grand English course of four miles is run in about seven minutes. This would be fixing between the trot and the gallop, pushed as far as possible, an approximative rapidity of 4 to 11, but I think that it would be a false calculation to apply it to ordinary cases. Whatever be the quickness of the trot in the Dutch races, horses setting out on a gallop have much more room to gain ground when they are superior; and there must be much less difference between the trot of the best *hart traber*, and that of an ordinary horse, than between the gallop of Eclipse, and that of a horse also taken at random. The spectators were worthy of the rest; they consisted of a multitude of country people from the environs, dressed in their finest clothes. However, as the weather was threatening, the greater part of the pretty head-dresses was covered with large

woollen hoods, lined with pink or blue silk, which set off the smiling countenances of the wearers. The crowd was separated from the horses by the canals, which on this occasion were very useful, and on the slope of the dike, which served as an amphitheatre, it enjoyed the race to the greatest advantage, and presented itself the most agreeable aspect. There was a magnificent prospect from the top of this dike; we overlooked the rich Beemster, intersected in every direction by avenues of immense trees, which bordered the smaller canals; the Polder, where they pretend that the butter is more delicate, the wool finer, and the inhabitants richer than elsewhere; in short this spot of earth, the *nec plus ultra* of that Arcadia in prose which is found in all the agricultural parts of North Holland. We were almost the only admirers of this rich picture, for all the other spectators had just quitted the multitude of little retreats which filled the Polder, and we hardly saw any stranger except the winner. It was a Mr. V., a rich merchant of Amsterdam, whom his rustic rivals seemed very cheerfully to pardon for a defeat for which he probably indemnified them, for they surrounded him, pressing him against a tree, with the expression of a much more

amiable interest than that of the greedy and disgusting crowd, with which we saw the same Mr. V. encompassed the next day on the Exchange at Amsterdam, which literally suffocated him against a pillar, to forestal each other in obtaining a brokerage on the Danish loan, by getting nearer to him.

The winner returned to the town, bearing a handsome and heavy whip, loaded with bunches of ribbons, which was the prize: it was a real triumphal procession, and the cries of joy of the crowd among which we were pressed, were almost as harsh and disagreeable as our most detestable Swiss accents. These worthy people repaired to the various taverns in the town, and we followed them into the most respectable. The bill of fare of which we partook, and a description of the apartment would be curious. Smoked meat, salt-fish, boiled vegetables, would be as numerous in the first as china, glazed curtains, and little looking-glasses in the second. Unfortunately the company were the most steady people in the country; their habitual gravity never forsook them, and nothing gave an opportunity for interesting observations.

We were going to arrive at Broek. Two hours more of deserts and barbarism, and we

were going to finish our tour with the most striking contrast of all those that occur in a country that is full of them, with that village of puppets, this tasteless toy, so celebrated in foreign countries, and so improperly held up as a specimen of Holland. Madame de Genlis in *Adèle and Théodore* draws a charming picture of it, which must leave in the memory of her young readers an impression like that made by the *Arabian Nights*. Unfortunately this description must not be placed in the historical part of her works.

Before you arrive at Broek you discover a large piece of water, without a single vessel to animate its surface. It is bordered with highly ornamented pavillions, and about a dozen kiosks, which put us in mind of Bagatelle and Neuilly. An indifferent inn is placed on the outside of this sanctuary. It is a great favour to obtain a guide to shew you the interior. It has been said that it was prohibited both by law and custom to go in a carriage in the street. There is a much more simple reason; there are no streets at all, and the paths which separate the several grounds are impassable except on foot. They are made of brick, in the prettiest manner in the world, the sand which covers them is disposed in compart-

ments; at two o'clock the sand was not disturbed; nobody had yet passed; it was therefore evident that we were there alone. This fact, and the painting of the trees in the Polders, must be seen to be believed. It was a series of play-things, the one more painted, more ornamented, and more brilliant than the preceding. Little canals and pretty bridges, every moment, intersected the paths, the windings of which were not devoid of grace. At every step they, however, discovered to us, with a new piece of luxury, a new absurdity. Here a house, appearing like a temple, and having a superb attic, was only a painted wall above a mean roof. On the side of it was the habitation of a man, who kept a painter in his house all the year round, whose sole employment it was to new varnish his house. Farther on we were desired to admire, at the entrance of a picturesque garden, an iron gate which cost more than 800*l.*, and was ugly in proportion. It was in as good taste and as much in place as the two pillars of Carara marble, which a citizen of Amsterdam, at the expence of fifty thousand francs, has planted before his brick house on one of the quays, from which one would pay something to have them removed. This garden aimed in fact only at

imitating and following nature. In it were two or three ponds of the brightest green, the semblance of a rivulet, all possible patterns of bridges, an entire archipelago, a population, and retreats for it perfectly worthy of each other. In a pavillion of painted boards, a priest in full costume, with his legs crossed, was reading his breviary quite at his ease, while a net, suspended over the water before him, waited eternally for the fish. On a steep rock, a shepherd of the Alps was blowing his pipe, without making a large cow advance, which concealed a rivulet and two bridges. A hunter had been waiting for thirty years' orders to fire at a duck, placed at the muzzle of his fowling-piece, and the horror of the proprietor for life and motion has been so great that in a country where swans and rabbits abound, wooden representations of these animals covered his ponds, and the islands with which he had sown them.

His neighbour had a little varied his manner of imitating nature and shewing his good taste. He had filled his garden with yew trees, and in proportion as they grew he had converted them upon the spot, into chairs, ladders, pistols, wild boars, and hats, and it seemed impossible, when passing through this

chaos, not to pity the trees tortured in so strange a manner. Yet there are some who are ready to call by the name of English gardens, extravagances like those in the first I have mentioned, as if it was not notorious that the characteristic of the English taste is exactly the contrary; that is to say, it consists in doing little, and only following the road which nature herself has pointed out.

It must, however, be acknowledged that this repository of bad taste is now appreciated at its true value, and that there is nobody out of Broek, who does not look upon it as the height of absurdity. This is the more to be regretted, as it is perhaps the spot in the world where the greatest quantity of money is accumulated; this village arose in the flourishing period of the maritime commerce of Holland, and the merchants who had made an immense fortune on the banks of the stagnant canals, were very happy to come and end their lives amidst canals rather less dirty, and which they could arrange according to their fancy. Their descendants have remained there, vegetating under the weight of their opulence, being neither country people nor citizens, making during the course of their lives one or two visits to the Indies, if they have retained any plantations

there, but having done this they become absolutely immovable, and ignorant of the existence of Hanover, London, or Brussels, and every thing that does not immediately concern them. After this let any one deny that a pipe affords an indemnity for many enjoyments. Upon the whole Broek is a place which deserves to be seen. In the midst of all this there is a sensible custom which might be imitated with advantage. All these bridges, canals, and paths require a great deal of labour to keep them in repair; each individual contributes either in money or workmen. A large board, placed in the most frequented spot, contains every week a list of the names of those inhabitants who have remained in arrears in the performance of this duty: every one is very careful to avoid this public exposure.

From Broek we went to Bucksloot, through a country which is left in all its native deformity, and has not even the resource of being ridiculous. Bucksloot, situated on the Y, opposite to Amsterdam, is a tolerably pretty village. It is one of the most frequented promenades, and on Sundays numerous parties of respectable citizens land there. It is there that travellers hire carriages to go to North Holland; we had tried all the coachmen in the

place; and we can say, upon better grounds than the travellers who judge of Blois, that they are great rogues. A tongue of land projects beyond it towards Amsterdam; and though it was very narrow, the half of it has been taken for the new canal. Upon the Custom-house, which is upon the end of this promontory, there is a lofty gallery, from which we enjoyed a most magnificent prospect. The sea surrounded us on all sides; a thousand vessels covered its surface; Amsterdam extended opposite to us, upon a segment of a circle of more than two leagues, displaying all the grandeur of its port. It is from this point, and this alone, that Amsterdam must be viewed; for when seen from the land side, it nowhere has a handsome appearance; and yet, of a thousand travellers who come to Amsterdam, there is hardly one who enters for the first time by this side. At the left extremity of the semicircle, the immense magazines of the East India Company, which had sunk down a few days before, with very large quantities of grain, shewed their walls overthrown, their roofs suspended, and their floors divided in the midst. At the other end, towards the Haarlem Gate, we see the remains of a fortress; the tower, called *of tears*, which recalls to mind the unfortunate Gilbert

d'Amstel, and the little lodges which those rich citizens have had built in the water, who did not think themselves near enough to it upon the quays. The whole of the vast interval, full of steeples, trees, buildings, and ships, presents a picture resplendent with riches and variety.

We embarked immediately, in order to admire it more near at hand, and set sail in a pretty high wind, to the great satisfaction of one of the party, who was resolved to call this a voyage by sea. This passage resembles that from Rye to Portsmouth across the road of Spithead. Having now arrived in a city which has been so often celebrated, we lay down the pen, having had no excuse for taking it up, but the desire of describing a country hitherto nearly unknown.

ICELAND AND ITS INHABITANTS.

BY DR. GLIEMANN.

IN the year 861, a Norwegian pirate, of the name of Nadod, was cast on the island of Iceland, and gave the name of Sneeland to this country, which was entirely covered with snow. Three years later a Swede, Gardar Suafarsson, who lived in Denmark, and had heard of this discovery, undertook an expedition to explore the country; he sailed quite round it, and called it by the name of Gardarsholm. Having wintered there, he returned in the spring of 865, and reported that the land was good and well wooded. This report induced a Swede, Floke Wilgerderson, to go, in the year 868, from Rogaland in Norway, to settle there. That he might be certain of finding the country, he took three ravens with him, according to whose flight he directed his course, and reached the land, where he remained some time, and explored the coasts, where he found much drift-wood, and likewise a great deal of floating ice,

for which reason he bestowed on it the name of Iceland, which it has ever since retained. The country however did not please him ; he left it, and on his return home described it as a very indifferent place to live in. Iceland would therefore in all probability have long continued unpeopled, had not some very peculiar circumstances conducted settlers thither.

Harold Haarfager had at that time subdued the whole of Norway, which induced many Norwegians to leave their own country, as their antient liberty was so much curtailed. It was on this occasion that several Norwegians, particularly from Drontheim, repaired to Iceland, and it was a company of these which settled there in 874, under the conduct of Ingolf. He had duly examined the country some years before, in the company of one of his relations, named Hiorleif, and these two, with their followers, may be considered as the first inhabitants of Iceland. They formed a settlement on the south-west coast, while others took possession of the other parts of the island ; for the emigration from Norway continued, so that, at length, a punishment was annexed to it. The register, called Landnama book, shews that, among the Norwegian settlers, there were also many Danes and Swedes, so that these three

nations may be regarded as the ancestors of the Icelanders.

It appears however, from the same Landnama book, that these first settlers, on their arrival in the southern parts of the island, found various articles, such as crosses, &c. ; but this, at the most, would only indicate a temporary visit of some Scotch or Irish mariners. For there is no proof whatever that any such ever resided here, as Are Frode affirms they did.

We find that already in the year 928, the country had a constitution which was nearly aristocratical ; and that it had been divided into four provinces, and these subdivided into twelve districts. Once every year a general assembly was held at the Thingwallewater (i.e. Lake Thingwalle), where the Lagmand, in concert with the principal inhabitants of the country, decided all important concerns, and passed sentence in all those disputes which it had not been possible to determine by their laws, though they were very good for those times.

The country retained this constitution for three hundred years, and the citizens of this northern republic distinguished themselves in many respects. In the beginning of this period, the Icelanders discovered Greenland and

the countries on Hudson's Bay, and they were therefore the first discoverers of that part of the world which Columbus found again some centuries afterwards. During this time, in which Europe was still immersed in ignorance, poetry flourished in the snowy plains of Iceland, and the historic muse gave us the numerous interesting Sagas. Among the poetical productions, the most remarkable are, *Voluspa* and *Hawamaal*; and among the Sagas, *Samund Frodes* and *Snorro Sturlesons Edda*, the *Heimskringla*, *Herwarar* and *Eyrbyggja Saga*, by the latter author, and many others. Among the historians, we must mention *Are Frode*, and among the historical works several books of *Icelandic Annals*.

Towards the end of the tenth century (981 to 1000) Christianity was introduced into Iceland, and solemnly accepted by the General Assembly. It probably made but little change in the mode of life of the Icelanders. The old Icelanders were but little acquainted with luxury and refinement, and frequently obliged to endure great hardships; though we may infer, on the other hand, that the climate was formerly not so severe as it now is, because at that time both corn grew and forests flourished, neither of which is now the case. The Icelanders of

that period employed themselves, like their present descendants, in fishing and in breeding cattle, and lived as they do now, in dwellings made of wood and earth.

In the thirteenth century, aristocracy threatened to degenerate into oligarchy, and many civil commotions ensued, the end of which was, that, in the year 1261, the greater part of the country submitted to Hagen, King of Norway, and the remaining portion did the same three years afterwards. In 1380, Iceland, as well as Norway, was united to Denmark, and it has ever since continued subject to that kingdom.

This union of the republic with a European monarchy could not fail to have great influence on the national character, and the manners of the inhabitants. The annual assemblies still indeed continued, and under the direction of the former Stadtholders, but they soon lost their antient importance, chiefly from the circumstance that the Norwegian, and in the sequel the Danish, kings governed the country with so much lenity that the inhabitants had no cause to make any opposition. But the consequence of this change in the government was, that the Icelanders were not permitted to make maritime expeditions as they formerly did, and they thus gradually lost much of their antient

energy and activity. Their commerce too, soon fell entirely into the hands of foreigners, and even the climate began to deteriorate by degrees. Nothing, in short, remained unchanged, except the plain honest character of the first inhabitants.

Since the union of Iceland with Denmark, it has experienced many misfortunes. In the year 1402, raged the dreadful pestilence called the black death, which carried off nearly two-thirds of the inhabitants, and was followed by many other disasters ; for example, the death of the greater part of the cattle ; and almost at the same period, in the years 1419 to 1425, English pirates from Hull, Lynn, and other sea-ports, on the east coast of England, committed depredations on the Icelandic coast, and even killed the Stadtholder in 1512. At the end of the fifteenth century, the country was again desolated by an epidemic disorder, which carried off many of the inhabitants. From this time the Icelanders degenerated into idleness, ignorance, and superstition.

Yet, in this period of misfortune, in the beginning of which Sturla Thordson wrote his *Sturlunga Saga*, the intellectual energy of the Icelanders was not entirely extinct; and so early as 1530, a printing press was established

in Holum, in the northern part of the island. In the commencement too of this century, the Reformation was introduced. Gudbrand Thorlaksen, Arngrim Jonas, and Biörn a Skard-saa, are men of that epoch, whose names deserve respect for their proficiency in the sciences.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century the Icelanders were in some measure entirely in the hands of the Hamburg and Bremen merchants. The piracies of the French and English still continued ; and in the year 1627, they were succeeded even by the Algerines, who carried away many of the inhabitants.

The eighteenth century too was memorable for several terrible visitations. In 1707, the small-pox destroyed above 16,000 persons ; from 1753 to 1759, there was a succession of years of distress, and a general famine, in which above 10,000 persons perished. In the year 1783 commenced the dreadful volcanic eruption of the Skaptna Jokul, which brought with it a train of diseases and famine, so that the population of the island was again diminished by the destruction of nearly 11,000 souls.

The progress of the people in civilization was not suspended during this unhappy po-

riod ; and in the two last centuries, Iceland can boast of some celebrated men ; for instance, Thormodus Torfäus, Arnas Magnäus, and Finnur Jonson, and also the celebrated sculptor Thorwaldson. But it was to be lamented that, with this increasing refinement, in the eighteenth century, luxury and extravagance were introduced. Even foreign fashions began to appear. Since the opulent have become acquainted with rum, punch, and expensive wines, the poor man has accustomed himself to beer and mead, French wine, and brandy. Tea, which was formerly so general, has now been superseded by coffee ; and instead of national manufactures for clothing, they begin to use silk and velvet.

The Icelanders are of middling stature ; in the north-west part, however, generally short and robust ; and, according to Mackenzie's account, have a proportionably longer spine, which Dr. Gliemann, however, has not been able to perceive, at least in the many Icelanders living at Copenhagen. The head is of the middle size, the countenance open, the features, especially of the women, very pretty, but the cheek-bones rather prominent. They have all, without exception, fine teeth, fair hair, but seldom curled. Corpulent persons are very

rarely met with. Hooker thinks he has observed that the women have generally very flat breasts, which is said to be caused by their bracing them tightly from their youth. In Aumundarfjord, and partly too in Dyrefjord and Sugandefjord, they suffer the beard to grow, and also differ in their dress from the other inhabitants of the country.

The Icelanders are very hospitable. Where they have not very frequent intercourse with strangers, they are uncorrupted, and in general moral and pious. They can almost all read and write. The children are educated at home by the parents, because the dwellings are so scattered, and the country in some places so impassable, that they cannot go to school. The most enlightened inhabitants of Iceland are, according to Henderson, to be met with in the district of Oefjord.

History and philology are the two sciences to which the Icelanders have chiefly devoted themselves for several years past. We meet with many persons who both write and speak Latin, and are not unacquainted with the classics. But poetry, which was formerly so flourishing, has lost, if not its admirers, yet its antient lustre. The better educated individuals, as well as all those who have intercourse with

Danish merchants, understand and speak Danish, which is not very different from the Icelandic, as the latter is properly the antient unaltered fundamental language of the two principal Scandinavian dialects, the Danish and the Swedish. The Icelandic is pretty uniformly spoken everywhere, and only in the district of Ostland we notice a singing pronunciation, resembling the Norwegian.

According to all probability, the population was much more numerous during the flourishing times of this island than it is, at present, when the country has been visited with disasters of all kinds for several centuries, and, what is of still more consequence, the climate has been manifestly growing worse. The accounts we have of the population of the country seem to prove such a diminution. Iceland had,

In the year 1703 . . . 50,444 inhabitants.

1707	. .	about 34,000
1750	. .	50,700
1769	. .	46,201
1778	. .	50,212
1783	. .	47,287
1801	. .	47,207
1804	. .	46,349
1808	. .	48,063
1816	. .	47,207
1823	. .	49,269

Of the 47,207 persons, according to the census in 1801, there were 21,476 males and 25,731 females: thus a large proportion of the latter to the former, of about 15 to 13. According to the lists of births and deaths during ten years, the annual average was, marriages 250, births 1,350, and deaths 1,250, so that, according to this proportion, there ought to be every year an increase of 100 souls. Though there have been years when the excess has been from six to 700 persons, yet a larger number cannot be assumed as regular, because unhealthy years carry off as great a number.

An extraordinary number of children die before their tenth year. Dr. Callisen is of opinion that the custom, which has been gradually introducing in modern times, of many Icelandic women not weaning their children themselves, but putting them out to nurse, when they are fed with cows'-milk, is in a great measure the cause of it. As the daily occupation of the men consists in fishing, they do not in general attain to so great an age as the women. When they have reached their fiftieth year, they are frequently attacked with consumption and disorders in the lungs; which soon terminate their lives. Besides the diseases common among children, and of which many die (ninety-six of

a sore throat in 1822), one of the most fatal is a kind of rickets which frequently prevails in the Westman islands, and carries off all the new-born children. Consumption and apoplexy are likewise not uncommon ; about the twenty-fifth part of the deaths are occasioned by accidents, particularly by drowning and cold. Dysentry, scurvy, jaundice, dropsy, are indeed pretty general, but not so fatal as the above. The mortality is the greatest when bilious and nervous fevers prevail, as they often become epidemical. Inflammatory fevers and similar diseases are not so dangerous. The itch, which is pretty common, is to be attributed to the great want of cleanliness among the Icelanders.

The interior of the country is entirely uninhabited, and the population is extended only over a tract along the coast of about three hundred square miles. The Icelanders for the most part live in detached scattered dwellings, and the few towns and trading places are comparatively so inconsiderable, that they scarcely deserve this name. The greater number of the habitations, among which we here and there see a church, are situated in the grassy vallies along the rivers. During the summer the Icelanders have *Seler* or Alpine huts in the mountains, where the cattle at that time pasture.

There are in Iceland but few buildings of stone ; some are of wood, but by far the greater part are constructed in the following manner. A dwelling (bai, i.e. farm) generally consists of several small buildings (hialeý), each of which has its particular destination, and has only one division ; but these are all connected together, and thus form the entire dwelling. The exterior walls are of turf, generally four feet and a half high, four feet or more thick below, and only three feet above, and are often covered externally with green sward, earth, or stones, which makes them still thicker. The roofs are formed of trees and brushwood, overlaid with green turf, and have small openings to admit the light, with panes of glass, or very thin sheep-skin. The inner walls, connecting the several divisions, are not so thick as the external ones, and are likewise made of turf. The solid outer walls contribute much to the warmth, but tend to promote the corruption of the atmosphere, which is caused in these apartments partly by the want of cleanliness and the various vegetable and animal substances contained in them, and partly because the fresh air cannot penetrate. As the whole building is low, and both the walls and the roof are covered with verdure in the summer, such an Ice-

landic dwelling resembles a little hill. The entrance is generally towards the south, and the door most frequently painted red. From the passage which you enter through this door, issue the entrances to the various separate apartments, which serve as their sitting-room, bed-chamber, kitchen, store-room or dairy, stables, &c. The inner space is sometimes fitted up for a guest chamber, or room for strangers, and one of the adjoining apartments for a bathing-room. The outer divisions serve as store-rooms for provisions, fish, household implements, and one of them for a smithy. The larger dwellings have separate stables for the horses, cows, and sheep; but the smaller have only one stable, and even the poorest cottager who possesses but a single cow has a place apart for her.

Adjoining the houses we commonly find an inclosed space, and several hay-stacks, which are covered with green turf. In the district of Ostland they generally have barns or small out-houses, in which the hay is kept during the winter. In this part of Iceland, too, we not unfrequently see the houses thatched with sea-reed grass, which grows here in abundance.

The Icelandic churches are not much better than the dwellings; they are so low that you

may touch the ceiling with your hand ; rather broader than the houses, and the walls wainscoted, so that the earth is not seen. The altar stands generally on the east side ; there is also a font, and the chancel is usually separated from the body of the church. Besides the pulpit, which is found almost everywhere, there are in many churches pews, at least for the women.

The Icelanders, for the most part, dress themselves in stuffs of their own manufacture ; but the women, as we have already said, often wear silk and other foreign manufactures. The men in general dress like seamen, in a short jacket of a blue, grey, or black colour, trousers of the same, worsted stockings, and half-boots made of ox or sheep-skin, with the hair or wool rubbed off, but without heels, and fastened with straps across the foot. Sometimes they are made of undressed seal-skin. The fishermen wear cloaks of sheep or seal-skin, frequently with a hood. They likewise wear round hats, with their hair hanging down. Such as do not belong to the lower class dress like the civilized people in the north of Europe ; but even the poorer people have generally a better habit, which they put on when they go to church, or on other festive occasions.

The dress of the women is more complex and diversified: they wear jackets and petticoats, and above these a full black dress laid in many folds, which the more wealthy adorn with silver buckles. The under petticoats are sometimes trimmed at the edge with several rows of ribbon, and above have three large silver buttons. The apron is fastened to them by means of a girdle, which is ornamented with raised silver or brass plates. The jackets are for the most part black, with long tight sleeves: the jacket is trimmed in front with velvet with eyelet holes sometimes worked in silver or gold; the seams behind are likewise edged with velvet. Round the throat they wear a small standing collar about three fingers broad, edged with silver, or gold and silver lace. Often too they wear a girdle or zone of velvet, with silver clasps. When they go out of the house to church, or otherwise, they throw over a kind of hood or mantle, generally made of black stuff, bound down the front with two stripes of cloth of a different colour, which are more or less ornamented with silver according to the circumstances of the wearer. Round their head they wear a large white handkerchief, and above this, one of finer texture, so as to form an inclined cone half a yard high, or a horn projecting forwards,

round which they also twist a silk or cotton handkerchief, that it may sit close to the head and the hair be entirely hid. Round the neck they wear a velvet tippet, or else merely throw over it a silk or cotton handkerchief. This tippet, as well as the head-dress, is more or less trimmed with silver buttons, or other ornaments, according to the fortune of the wearer. The whole of the silver in the dress of a woman of distinction may be worth four hundred rix dollars. The shirts of the men, as also the shifts of the women, are mostly made of stuff or flannel, very rarely of linen.

The whole family work together with the servants of both sexes, and prepare every thing necessary for food and clothing. In winter they rise at about six or seven, and immediately commence the labours of the day. One attends to the sheep; a second to the other cattle. Some prepare ropes of wool or horse-hair; a third is in the smithy, and thus each has his particular occupation. The women for the most part spin on distaffs, sometimes also on the wheel, and they, as well as the men, knit and weave, while others are employed in making fishing-dresses, or carding and cleaning the wool. While all are thus engaged, one member of the family reads aloud to the rest, generally

in a singing tone. Hence we find in almost every house some books, containing tales or stories, which they use for this purpose, {and these books are exchanged with neighbouring families for others, so that there is no want of variety. This exchange commonly takes place in the church, where some always attend, even in the severest seasons. They sometimes amuse themselves with a game at draughts or chess, in which they are pretty expert, or else play at cards.

The Icelanders have no national dance; their singing is very monotonous, and their heroic poems are recited in a screaming voice.

The Icelanders divide the day and night, or four and twenty hours, into nine portions. The time from midnight to three o'clock in the morning is called *otta*, from three to six *midmorgum*, from six to nine *dagmal*, from nine to twelve *hactei*, from noon to half-past one, *midmunda*; from half-past one to three, *noon*; from three to six, *miduraftur*; from six to nine, *natmal*; and from nine to twelve, *midnat*.

The chief beverage of the Icelanders is sour milk, which is mixed with water, and called *Syre*; and curds or *skier*. To this we may add, that they use an extraordinary quantity of butter, which they prefer unsalted and very

old; when they have no butter they eat tallow. They likewise make cheese, though but rarely, and very indifferent. Their principal dishes are fish, mutton, beef, with very few vegetables; they seldom use salt to their food. To grind their corn they employ hand-mills, though not frequently, as the trading ships import flour; as also wine, beer, brandy, and other articles, which are now considered as necessaries of life; and thus in Iceland, as other countries, all colonial productions are to be had. The Icelanders use very much snuff, which they carry about with them in small horn boxes.

Journies are constantly performed on horse-back by both sexes; and if the distance is great, they always have some additional horses, in order to change, in case the first horse should be fatigued. The horses are fastened one behind the other; and thus, where there is much luggage, there is sometimes a long row of them. The baggage is fastened on a pack-saddle made of turf, and hangs down on each side. Before commencing a journey, the Icelanders generally say a short prayer. His principal journies are from the vallies along the rivers, to the coast, in order to fish, or to exchange his manufactures in the trading towns

for other goods, or else from one district to another, in order to assist at the hay-making. As early as February, great numbers begin to prepare for their journey to the south and western parts of the coast, whence they repair to the sea, if the weather permits. In the beginning of May they return home, but leave their fish behind. Towards the middle of June the Icelfander commences his second journey, when he carries with him all his goods, such as wool, tallow, butter, meat, &c. in order to exchange them for other necessaries, which he takes home with the fish which have not been sold. On the extensive and desolate heaths which they have to cross, we frequently find, on the borders of them, fixed halting places; at these, each traveller commonly lays a stone in a certain spot, so that at length a large pile is formed. Piles of this kind are met with in Oexnodal, and many other places.

CAPTAIN LITKE'S
ACCOUNT OF TWO EXPEDITIONS
TO
THE COASTS OF NOVA ZEMBLA;
Undertaken by him in the Years 1821—1822,
By Command of the Russian Government.

NOVA ZEMBLA, for a long time interesting only the geographer, attracted the attention of the Russian Government at the period when Europe, after desolatory wars of five and twenty years, saw itself reanimated with the spirit of discovery. In the year 1819, Russia sent a brig from Archangel, under the command of Captain Lasarew, with orders accurately to survey the hitherto so imperfectly known coasts of this Island, and to lay them down on charts. Lasarew sailed towards the beginning of summer. When he arrived on the coasts of Nova Zembla, he found them surrounded with a solid mass of ice, and the sea filled with so large a quantity of flakes of ice, that the passage was constantly hemmed and retarded. The necessity of com-

batting these difficulties for two months, added to the damp and cold atmosphere, had so debilitated the crew, that Lasarew, after having determined only a single spot on the western coast of Nova Zembla, found himself obliged to return to Archangel in the month of August, which is just the most favourable period for navigation in those seas. The whole crew suffered by the scurvy, and was, in fact, so enfeebled, that it could scarcely do the duties of the ship. When arrived in the harbour of Archangel, Lasarew was obliged to send nineteen of his sailors to the hospital, where several of them died soon after.

The Government was not deterred either by the ill success of the expedition, or by the impression occasioned by the many reports which were circulated, partly of the unhealthiness of the climate, and partly of the impracticability of effecting a landing on those inhospitable coasts. It was sensible that the success of similar enterprises in these icy seas depended on the influence of several circumstances, particularly such as produce either an increase or a diminution in the masses of ice. Almost all Polar voyages prove the great difference which these obstacles cause, in the same latitude, and in the same season. Thus the

voyage of Lieutenant Lasarew, even in the case that it could have been continued to a more favourable season," would prove nothing, and still less as he was obliged to conclude it at the beginning of August.

In the year 1821 it was determined to equip a new expedition; a vessel was built at Archangel, the command of which was entrusted to me. Government spared no expense to provide the expedition with every means for attaining the object desired. The fine brig of Nova Zembla was furnished with provisions and other stores for a year, the best which could be procured in Archangel. The commander had the choice of his officers and crew.

Thus equipped, the Nova Zembla sailed on the 15th of July, 1821; experience had just shewn that an earlier departure would unnecessarily expose the crew to all the dangers of a Polar voyage.

The vessels which sail from Archangel into the Northern Ocean, generally steer between the west coast of the White Sea and a large sand bank, extending from north to south, at a distance of 6 to 20 Italian miles from the coast. I, however, resolved like my predecessor, to follow the shorter course to the east of this bank,

towards Cape Kande. During the first days of our voyage we advanced so slowly, that on the evening of {the 18th of July we were only at Sea-horse Island. We sailed with a pretty brisk wind towards the north, in the hope of being able to reach the Northern Ocean on the following morning.; but on the morning of the 19th, the ship suddenly run upon a sand bank.

The wind had very fortunately abated about half an hour before; had this not been the case, our ship would most probably have been dismasted. All endeavours to get the brig afloat again were fruitless, as the ebb was too violent, running four knots an hour, and we were therefore obliged to wait for the tide. Though we had lightened the fore part of the ship, it was, notwithstanding, so much inclined to one side by the ebb, that I every moment feared she would be laid on her side. At low water our ship was quite on dry ground, so that the officers and sailors walked round her without wetting their feet. It was a novel sight to see a ship with all her sails spread, in the middle of a large sand island, which had suddenly risen from the sea. It could not, however, be long before the bank would be again under water; we could not anticipate what fate awaited our brig. All measures for

her security were adopted : when the tide came in, she got safely from the bank, after receiving some violent shocks, from which she, however, sustained no injury.

After we had remained at anchor in the open sea for a whole day, we continued our voyage, and on the 22nd of July sailed into the Ocean. We here experienced, with cold weather, violent and frequently contrary winds, which lasted till the 29th, and permitted us to move neither backwards nor forwards. The wind now changed, and on the 31st of July we met with enormous masses of ice, which prevented our sailing along the coast. We were forced to combat with these obstacles for two weeks. To whatever point of the coast we bent our course, we always met with more or less firm chains of ice ; to judge by the depth of the sea, we were often near the coast, but were unable to recognize it on account of the thick fogs which covered every object around us. After many fruitless attempts, we at length discovered the coast of Nova Zembla, on the 10th of August, in $70^{\circ} 30'$. It seemed to be entirely surrounded with a ridge of ice, six Italian miles broad. We sailed along this solid mass of ice, and finding it to be impossible to approach the coast any closer at this point, I was obliged to

seek a more convenient landing place. Thinking that the southern side of the island would probably be sooner cleared of the ice than the northern, I endeavoured to make for its south point; but we found every where the same insurmountable barriers. On the night of the 13th of August we were suddenly becalmed, and the brig was in great danger of being shut up in the ice, but we were fortunately rescued from it by an east wind.

On the morning of the 14th of August we descried, at a distance of scarcely 15 Italian miles, a small part of the coast, at the southern part of the island; the other parts were surrounded with solid ice. The sea was open towards the east, and we therefore hastened to reach the straits between Nova Zembla and the island of Waigatz. I flattered myself with being able at least to determine the latitude of this strait, but we had scarcely been sailing one hour, when the floating masses of ice, following the same course, had attached themselves to the immoveable blocks on the coast, and extended towards the south as far as the eye could reach.

All attempts hitherto made prove that the sea which washes the coasts of Nova Zembla, from the 72° of latitude to its southern point,

and even as far as the island of Waigetz, is covered with solid masses of ice, and that we must, therefore, not expect any success from this side. These considerations induced me to leave the south coast, and steer towards the north side of Nova Zembla, though it was not probable that we should be more fortunate there.

Meantime we sensibly felt the approach of autumn ; the weather, though less damp, was cold ; the thermometer seldom rose above the freezing point, and we had much snow.

On the 14th of August we saw on the fields of ice which surrounded us, several herds of sea-horses ; they seemed much alarmed at the first shots we fired, but appeared perfectly indifferent to the succeeding ones.

It was not till the evening that we were able to extricate ourselves from these fields of ice. We kept constantly close to the thick ice which surrounded the coast, without being able to see the latter. We pursued a northerly direction till the 19th of August, when the ship was driven by a violent hurricane more than 60 miles into the open sea. When it had abated, we returned to the coast, but we were soon stopped by an extensive ice field. This new obstacle, for which we were not prepared at so

great a distance from the coast, deprived me of all hope of being able to reach the coast of Nova Zembla, during the course of this summer; but on the other hand, my ship being in good condition, the crew healthy, and in high spirits, I resolved to continue my endeavours till the end of August. On the 21st, a violent wind and a cloudy sky obliged me to lie to; but on the 22nd, the weather being less unfavourable, I made another attempt to reach the coast, with a fresh breeze from the south, which proved successful. We descried it soon after mid-day, in latitude $72\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$. It was formed of hills of a moderate height, covered with snow, and was at this time clear of ice.

It being impossible to make the part which I saw agree with the maps, I was in doubt respecting the point in which we were. To determine the question, I steered in the direction towards Strait Matotschkin, which divides Nova Zembla into two islands; an accurate survey of which, as a main object of the examination, was particularly recommended in my instructions.

The latitude of this Strait varies on several charts, between $73^{\circ} 30'$ and 75° . The first is probably the most correct, because it is the only one founded on astronomical observations,

made indeed fifty years ago. I examined with the greatest attention the tract of coast lying between 73° and 74° , but no point of it corresponded with the situation assigned by the maps to the Matotschkin: there was no sufficient reason to take any one of the Gulphs we saw, for the mouth of so broad a strait. Unfortunately, the continued east wind would not allow me to approach so near the coast as I desired. After penetrating to $74\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, beyond which the Strait could not be supposed to lie, I was obliged to put back to the south, though the sea towards the north was quite free from ice; because, as I have said before, the survey of this strait was a main point of my instructions.

From 73° the coast suddenly changed its form, and presented only lofty mountains, the summits of which were covered with snow, the steep sides and projections, on which no snow could lie, shewed only the naked rock. The clouds sometimes breaking, enabled us to see the ridges of mountains in the interior covered with snow. A few water-fowl, and now and then a sea-horse, were the only living creatures that we saw in this frozen waste.

On our return to the south, the wind did not permit us to approach the coast. On the

26th in the morning we perceived the hut of some sea-horse hunters, close on the shore ; as it might perhaps be inhabited, we fired a gun, but nobody appeared. This spot might be the island known on maps by the name of Mitjuschew ; I therefore examined with the greatest attention the coast extending to the south, but I could discover nothing of the strait, though the ship was only six miles from the coast. I might perhaps have obtained some insight into this subject by sending out the long boat, but a violent wind blowing from shore, prevented it, and besides more time would have been required, than we could spare.

On the evening of the 26th of August, we reached 73° of latitude for the second time. It now appeared that we had sailed past the strait without perceiving it, which could only be accounted for by the inaccuracy of the charts. I however determined to spend the few remaining days in making a survey of a considerable part of the south coast.

Proceeding in this direction, we perceived on a promontory, (which proved in the sequel to be Goose-cape) a large hut of some sea-horse hunters, in latitude 72° . In order to have a nearer view of it we approached the coast; but the depth suddenly decreased from 10 to 3

fathoms, and the brig struck violently upon a rock. To lessen the danger, we turned her to the windward, but before we reached a deeper part of the water, she struck for a second time upon a rock. Nothing but the promptitude and skill of the sailors saved the ship, which would have been inevitably dashed to pieces by a third shock.

On the 28th of August the horizon was covered with a thick fog, the snow descended in large flakes, and the sea was covered with drifting ice. To avoid any delay, we continued our voyage southward along the coast. Towards noon the fogs fortunately dispersed, but only to show us a long series of ice fields which joined the coast, and extended towards the north as far as the eye could reach. I thus found myself under the disagreeable necessity of labouring against the fresh north gale, in order to come out of the narrow channel in which I found myself enclosed. It was not till the 30th, that I succeeded in doubling the northern part of this mass of ice, which might be about 30 miles in length.

September having set in, it was time to think of returning to Archangel, where we arrived on the 11th of September, after a difficult navigation through the White Sea.

This expedition of 1821 did not answer the expectations of Government. If the fruitless attempts to find the Mototschkin Straits raised doubts respecting the situation of this important point, they however removed the erroneous notion that some physical revolution, like that which had blocked up the coasts of Old Greenland, had rendered Nova Zembla inaccessible. For the Expedition had shewn that the west coast of Nova Zembla, from latitude 72° to 75° and perhaps to the northernmost point, was free from ice. These motives induced the Government to send another expedition under my command in the following year.

As it did not seem advisable to approach the coast of Nova Zembla before the beginning of July, Government resolved, that during the first half of the summer we should survey the coast of Lapland, from Holy Cape to the bay of Rola.

The more extensive object of this new expedition, made it necessary for me to put to sea as soon as the season and weather permitted: but our departure was unfortunately delayed by unforeseen obstacles till the 21st of June. On the 27th of June, 1822, we cast anchor in sight of the Iokan Islands, to the west of Holy Cape. From this place we com-

menced the survey of the coasts of Lapland, and by astronomical observations accurately determined the situation of the Iokan islands, also of Nakujew and seven other islands, Reindeer and Kildjui island, and the mouth of the bay of Kola. The intermediate tracts of coast were only cursorily surveyed. During the course of these observations, I had frequent opportunities of convincing myself of the inaccuracy of existing charts, and of clearing up and correcting many of their errors.

In the course of the survey we had repeated interviews with the Laplanders, who had left their winter habitations, and come down to the coast for the summer fishery. They supplied us with abundance of fresh fish, at very reasonable charges, and sometimes with live rein-deer, which greatly contributed to preserve the health of our crew.

We took in fresh water, in the harbour of Saint Catharine, and some live sheep at Kola, and on the 3d of August, with a brisk S. E. wind, set sail for Nova Zembla.

Our passage through the Icy Sea was rapid, and without accident. Though the mild and rainy winter which had prevailed in the northern latitudes, allowed me to suppose the ice would not present so many great obstacles as last season, I

had adopted every precaution which prudence could suggest. In fact, on the 8th of August, without having met with any ice, we descried the coast of Nova Zembla in 73° near to an unnamed small bay. We sailed as close along the coast as possible, and towards noon reached Mushroom Bay, six miles from the above mentioned bay. At four o'clock we saw the small island of Pankow, at the entrance of Matotschkin Strait, soon after the strait itself, and lastly the island of Mitjuschew, lying towards the north side of it. Thus we discovered this strait respecting which we were before in doubt, in the same spot where I had supposed it to exist. The accurate observations which we now possess, prove sufficiently that the strait could only be discovered from the island of Pankow. Last year we had sailed at rather a greater distance from the coast, so that we did not see the island, and consequently missed the strait.

The brig was already at the entrance of the strait, when contrary winds, the increasing darkness, the rapid falling of the mercury in the barometer, obliged us to defer the examination of it to another time, and to continue our course to the north.

On the 9th of August we were favoured with a strong land wind, so that on the evening of

that day we were in $74^{\circ} 45'$. Near an island which we recognized to be the Admiralty Island of Captain Baerends, the depth of the sea suddenly decreased to seven fathoms, and did not increase again till we took an almost directly opposite course. If the wind had been less favourable, the vessel would have been in great danger: perhaps this is the place where Captain Wood stranded in 1676.

On the 10th of August we were in $75^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude, and 58° east longitude from Greenwich. The coast of Nova Zembla had a dreary appearance, and was distinguished only by some glaciers. The mountains which formed the coast were lower than those we had seen in 73° and 74° , but very steep, and almost entirely covered with snow.

This day, we, for the first time saw icebergs; they were few in number, and did not hinder us from continuing our course to the north-east, but on the morning of the 11th of August, we met with ice-fields, between which, and the coast, there was a free passage. At half past eight we discovered the Cape, beyond which the coast evidently tends to the south-east. In the bay towards the west lie the islands, which, from their position, seem to be those called the Orange Islands, by Baerends. I was persuaded that I

had now reached the extreme point of Nova Zembla, a large quantity of drift wood, which could only come from the Carian Sea, seemed to confirm my opinion. But in order to remove all doubt, I determined to continue my course, notwithstanding the thick fog which veiled every thing around us in darkness. Towards noon the crashing of the ice in the north, east, and west, and the quantity of loose flakes of ice on every side, obliged me to ply to windward by short boards, in profound darkness, warned on the one side by the noise of the ice, and on the other by the shallowness of the water. At three o'clock in the morning of the 12th of August, the fog dispersed a little; but we were now in sight of an immense series of ice-fields which joined the north-east coast, and probably extended to the north-west, till they united with the polar ice. These insurmountable obstacles obliged me to return to Strait Matotschkin.

I determined the position of this Cape, which I take to be the extreme north-east point of Nova Zembla, to be as follows.

East longitude from Greenwich . . . 62° 45'

Latitude 76° 34'

Baerends, who calls it Cape Desire,

places it in longitude, east of

Ferro 94° or

East of Greenwich $75^{\circ} 50'$

Latitude $76^{\circ} 55'$

Contrary winds and a hollow sea kept us till the 15th of August, nearly on the same spot. The weather was extremely bad, and the thermometer never above the freezing point. The brisk north-west wind which blew on the morning of the 15th, favoured the continuation of our voyage; on the 16th at noon we doubled the island of Mitjuschew, whence we steered for Strait Matotschkin; but our progress was arrested by impenetrable darkness. The weather, however, cleared up on the morning of the 17th, and we cast anchor about six miles from the mouth.

I found the latitude, at our anchoring place, to be $73^{\circ} 17'$ which is twenty minutes less than has hitherto been stated.

East longitude from Greenwich $54^{\circ} 5'$

The declination of the magnetic

needle was 1 point

The inclination $80\frac{1}{2}$

Strait Matotschkin is bounded by mountains covered with eternal snow, which are partly composed of clay slate; we likewise found chlorite, talc and other kinds of slate, also quartz mixed with chlorite and calcareous spar. On the north side of the strait the surface shews layers of sulphurous pyrites, and trap mixed

with it. On the steep and low places the rock is covered with moss a yard high. The soil produces only the usual polar plants *cochlearia officinalis*, *rumex acetosa*, two or three species of small blue and yellow flowers, and some grass, but very rarely.

On the south coast of the strait, three wersts from its mouth, there is a bay called Marowirskoi Stanitze, into which the river Matotschka empties itself. On the right bank of this river is a large decayed hut, with a bath room. In its vicinity we noticed many crosses erected by mariners. The latest cross bears the date of 1807, and the name of the pilot Possjetow, who conducted hither the inspector of the Mines, Ludlow, at the expence of his excellency Count Romanzow. Several fishing utensils shew that this place has been visited for the sake of the fishery, but no vessel has been in the strait since 1811.

The advanced period of the season would not allow us to put out the long boat, for the survey of the east coast; besides this I could not expect much information from such a survey, which would have required a portion of time which I thought could be much better employed in exploring the south coast. Having completed our observations for determining the

position of the strait, we sailed to the same point of the coast where I had concluded my survey the preceding year.

On the 18th of August I was about to leave the strait, but the want of wind, and a thick fog, detained me till the 22d. On the 21st we caught a morse four yards long. Its skin was sent to the Imperial Museum.

On the 24th of August an unfavourable south-east wind arose, in spite of which we, however, reached the intended point on the 25th. Its situation was found to coincide with the observations of the preceding year. The frequently violent south-east wind, united to currents from the south-west, so much retarded our progress that on the 27th we had only reached latitude $71^{\circ} 45'$. Here we saw the cape which I took for Goose Cape, which together with the island of Meshschar forms the northern entrance to Strait Kostin. The coast was low and uniform, and terminated in many points. A storm, which arose on the night of the 27th, and lasted for three days almost incessantly, foiled all my endeavours to make a survey of the south coast of Nova Zembla. The brig was driven into the open sea, and as we could not expect the weather to change, being now in September, the period of the equinoctial gales, I resolved to return to Archangel.

On the 3rd of September we descried Cape Kando, on the 4th a violent storm from the north-east carried us across the whole of the White Sea, on the 5th we cast anchor before the bar of Beresow, and on the 6th of September arrived safely in the harbour of Archangel.

Though the results of the expedition of 1822 were more important than those of all preceding voyages to Nova Zembla, much still remains to be done. It remains doubtful whether the cape seen by us on the 11th of August is really the Cape Desire of Baerends; the south coast too of Nova Zembla, and the isle of Waigatz, remained unexplored; on the other hand the interest of the Russian marine and commerce requires a more accurate knowledge of the coasts of Lapland. His imperial majesty has therefore ordered another expedition to be fitted out, the command of which has also been entrusted to me.

* * *

Captain Litke returned on the 12th of September 1823 from his third voyage, and in the spring of 1824 sailed upon a fourth expedition. His official accounts of these two voyages have not yet been published.

JOURNEY THROUGH TAURIDA,

In the year 1820.

BY, MURAWIEW APOSTOL.

It must be confessed, says the author, that two months which I spent in the Tauric peninsula are by no means sufficient for the examination of a classical country, which requires at every step a careful investigation; and where, in spite of the destruction of its monuments, so many traces still remain from which inferences may be drawn to illustrate the ancient history and geography of Taurida. But though my journey was only of two months, I had been two years preparing for it, in the course of which I devoted myself almost exclusively to reading everything relative to Taurida, that is to be met with in the ancient historians and geographers, in the chronicles of the middle ages, and the accounts of modern travellers.

The present Odessa does not appear to me to stand on the same spot as the antient town, as

I conjecture from the *Periplus* of Arrian, and that of the anonymous writer, which is in fact only a prose version of the poem of Scymnus of Chios. On a careful comparison of all the data, Odessa appears to be situated on the harbour formerly belonging to the Istrians.

On my way from Odessa to Nikolajew, I turned out of the road to the village of Porutino, to view the place where Olbia formerly stood. The Borysthenic oration of Dion Chrysostomus is a highly valuable work for the local and other detailed information which it contains, and which proves that the speaker does not describe Olbia from fancy, but as an eye-witness. But I, who, likewise an eye-witness, describe not the city, but its ruins, can positively affirm, that if Dion's oration had not come down to us, we might have safely inferred from Herodotus that Olbia was not situated on the Dnieper, but on the Bug. At present there is no doubt about its situation; the marble slabs with inscriptions, that have been dug up, the foundations of buildings, fragments of statues, urns, an infinite number of medals, all are proofs that Olbia stood precisely on the spot which is here called the tract of the hundred sepulchres. We are indebted for this discovery to an accident; the bailiff of the village of Porutino having sent a jar full of medals

to the lord of the manor. I shall not attempt to describe the place of the hundred sepulchres, so called from the number of tombs scattered upon it. I will not affirm that this whole tract was formerly occupied by a city, or (what is more probable) that the remoter hills were properly burying places, and that the nearer are only the foundation of the city walls and towers, for even these form a circuit of six wersts or more. I shall not pretend to decide the spot where the gates were, or the site of the temples of Esculapius and Achilles. It is not every man that is so fortunate as Chateaubriant, who in a few minutes was able to determine the spot on which Sparta stood. I confine myself to the description of one part called Gorodok (the town) which in my opinion is the most remarkable.

Conceive a semi-elliptic beach, surrounded by a high mountain which is every where even, and terminates in promontories on each side. On this mountain, directly on the middle of the place, suppose a large quadrangular tomb; conceive two flights of steps, one on each side of the tomb, and at equal distances from it, leading down into the inclosed space, and you will have an accurate idea of what is here called the town. It was evident enough that the hand of man had been busy here. As I walked up and down the

beach, and thought of the harbour of Olbia, I asked my guide, "Have you ever happened to find any flag stones in this place?" "To be sure," he replied, "there are many in the river, some at a short distance from each other, some close together." Saying this, he took off his boots, and walked barefoot into the water; and when he had got a little way from the bank, he called out, "Now I am standing on a flag." I told him to feel with his hand, whether he could find any holes on the edges of the flag. He began to feel, and called out, "Yes, Sir; here certainly was the iron by which the flags were fastened." I was delighted at this discovery, which proved the port and market place of Olbia were on the spot that I had supposed. But after this little triumph, I must confess the melancholy impression that Olbia made upon me. The ground has every where been dug up and ransacked. Even the ashes of the poor Olbiopolitans have been disturbed by the descendants of the barbarians, by whom they were formerly oppressed. Instead of conducting the excavations on a regular plan, which would certainly have led to very interesting discoveries, the peasant takes his spade, and digs where he thinks fit, in search of pieces of coin and pots. If they dig into some sepulchre, or find the foun-

dations of an edifice, the stones are used for building, the marble for lime, and thus we see at every step, fragments of stones, and handles of urns. It is afflicting to think, that what neither the rage of the barbarians, nor the destructive progress of time could annihilate, has been sacrificed by the hand of ignorance.*

The method of obtaining medals is curious; they are taken like fish; boys go down to the river with sieves, step into the water up to the middle, take up the sand from the bottom, wash it in the sieve, and return home with a handful of medals, or sometimes with two. This operation is sure of succeeding day by day, and has become a source of gain to the country people, who part with a portion of what they find to the bailiff, and sell the remainder to strangers who visit those parts. Unfortunately when they find a medal, which they suppose to be of some value, they scour it with brickdust, till it is as bright as a soldier's button.

I am not sufficiently versed in the science of Numismatology, to venture on giving any account

* This must be understood of former times. The government has now taken the most judicious measures to preserve the remarkable antiquities of Taurida, and has even ordered the publication of discoveries of the monuments and antiquities of the Crimea.

of these medals. The person best able to give a satisfactory explanation of them is Colonel Blarenberg, at Odessa, a thorough connoisseur, who has in his cabinet a most valuable collection of medals relative to Olbia, besides inscriptions, urns, statues, and other curiosities, found at Porutino, of which it is to be hoped he will himself give an account to the learned world.* I will mention only one of his observations on the medals, which appears to me to be extremely important, considering the scanty historical information that has come down to us concerning Olbia. We know that this town was built by Ionian Greeks from Miletus, in the 31st Olympiad, 665 years before the Christian era. The events of its political existence, though few, are partly known to us from the account of authors, from Herodotus to Dion. From the words of the latter we know, that about a century and a half before his time, that is, about the last half century before the Christian era, Olbia had been cruelly desolated by the Getæ, and would not have recovered, had not this been the wish of the Scythians themselves. But we have no traditions respecting the time when the

* Col. Blarenberg, in fact, published at Paris, in 1822, "*Choix de médailles antiques d'Olbia*," with 20 copper plates.

entire ruin of the city took place. M. Blaremburg conjectures that Olbia ceased to exist in the first half of the third century; and supports his assertion by the following argument. In his collection there is a quantity of coins of Olbiopolis, when an independent state, governed by its own laws, but only a very few imperial coin, and those only from Septimus to Alexander Servius. But as no medals have been found of the latter, and his mother Mammea, M. Blaremburg infers from this, that Olbia was irrecoverably ruined under the reign of Severus, which was from 222 to 235; and I find his argument extremely solid; for were it not so, it would be next to impossible, that in the the 20 years during which this whole coast has been turned up, not a single coin of the Gordians, or their successors, should have been found; and yet this is the fact; from Septimus to Alexander Servius the series is complete, but there, all at once, broken off.

PERECOP.

Arriving here just before sun-rise, my first business was to go beyond Perecop, to be able to say, "I have been in the Crimea." I promised to write about Taurida only, so that in fact neither Olbia, nor my journey from the Bug to the place where I now am, should have been, ad-

mitted into my plan: however, having been inclined to speak of the former, I will now say a few words of the latter.

Have you ever heard of the illusion which sometimes deceives the traveller in the scorching deserts of Southern Asia? Exhausted by heat and thirst, wearied by travelling in the vertical rays of the sun, he is on the point of sinking down, his last strength is forsaking him, when all at once he sees before him, in a mist indeed, a city, towers, gardens, water. All his strength revives; his muscles acquire new elasticity; he exerts himself to reach the goal, and already dreams of coolness and repose,—when lo! the vision cruelly vanishes, and the unhappy wanderer looks with despair on the barren wilderness. Tired of the dull monotony of the Steppe, having seen for two days nothing but sky and earth, I recollected this phenomenon, and was even wishing to experience a similar deception, when suddenly, on the bank of a winding stream, a wonderful garden, the finest trees, presented themselves to my view.—Trees where I did not expect to see a twig.—I really thought that all this was a dream, and rubbed my eyes—but the appearance was real. It was Spaskoje, a country seat, three wersts from Nikolajew on the Jugula, founded by Prince

Potemkin, after whose death it was neglected and overgrown with grass; and is indebted for its present flourishing condition to Admiral Greig. I passed a whole day there, enjoyed the situation, and the trees, which seemed to have stood for centuries, though planted within these 40 years, and fancied what Spaskoje will one day become, when the many thousands of trees of different kinds, planted within these two years, shall have grown to maturity. I was delighted, but with all this I must confess, that the finest ornament of this place is the proprietor of it.

I cannot say any thing agreeable of Cherson. It is situated on the left bank of the Dnieper, which on the left bank is divided into many branches, bordered with reeds. I cannot describe the gloomy impression which this town made on me. It appeared to me like a vast cemetery, where so many of our brave warriors fell victims by a premature death. I saw the mean tomb of Howard. In a few years, the spot where the friend of humanity reposes, will be forgotten. I enquired after the monuments of Potemkin, and nobody answered me. The Dnieper flows here like Lethe, and the modest benefactor of mankind, as well as the haughty child of glory, sink into the same abyss of oblivion.

VILLAGE OF SABLÜ.

About three wersts from Perekop, I passed through an Armenian Bazar, where the Jews, Greeks, Armenians, and several Russians, trade with all kinds of goods, but particularly with very small lambs. This market town, which indeed cannot be compared with those in Little Russia, bears however more resemblance to a town than Perekop itself. From this place to Sympheropol, a distance of 130 wersts, is a naked Steppe, where no habitations are found on the road except the post houses.

The weather was extremely fine, and the thermometer 23°. Towards the south I perceived something like a blue cloud, just above the horizon, but as it was motionless and regular, I thought it might be a mountain; a conjecture which the driver confirmed. It was the Tschatür-Dag, which may be seen at the distance of 150 wersts. I have a notion that it is the same mountain which Strabo called Trapezus, and should I find that its summit viewed from the sea, between the coasts of Anatolia and Taurida, forms such a trapezoid, my conjecture will be converted into certainty.

On my journey through the Steppe, my attention was attracted by the camels, herds of which were grazing on both sides of the road. They

did not appear to me so ugly as I formerly thought them, but on the contrary had something noble in them.

We arrived at Sympheropol at day-break. Before we reach it, the uniformity of the Steppe begins to disappear: we see by degrees first hills, further on mountains, and in the distance the enormous masses which bound the southern horizon. Here begins Taurida, properly so called. All that tract I had hitherto passed through, was covered some thousand years ago by the sea. I staid only a few hours at Sympheropol, and hastened to this place, which is fifteen wersts from the town. I must repeat here, that I do not intend to give any topographical details, except of places which have either not been observed by preceding travellers, or which appear to me in a new light. Besides, I shall return through Sympheropol, and if I find any thing remarkable, will not pass it over. Meantime, I will only observe the name of Sympheropol, into which the conquerors have thought fit to change the Tartar Achmetschet, i. e. the *white mosque*, the former residence of Kalga-Sultan. I conjecture that the author of this new name is the learned Archbishop Eugenius, the translator of Virgil, who intended thereby to point out the advan-

tage which the whole country may expect from the foundation of a government town, for the name of Sympheropolis means nothing more than the town of utility.

SEBASTOPOL.

I left Sablî, the day before yesterday, and had a delightful journey through narrow valleys, and surrounded by picturesque mountains, as far as Baktschisaray, or rather to the post house, for I did not go into the town itself, or even see it, as it is hidden in a defile. From that station to Sebastopol is 30 wersts; the road for half this distance rises imperceptibly, but then descends suddenly, and pretty steep, to Duwanka, a Tartar village. It is a charming place. Poplars, minarets, clean Tartar villages, gardens watered by little streams, which are led by artificial means, to water the vineyards, altogether give it a picturesque and singular appearance. From this, the way goes along a narrow ridge, where you have on one side the rock, and on the other the little river Balbek. When you have passed the bridge over the Balbek, the road runs along the left side of the river, almost to the sea, but then suddenly turns at the village of Utschkaju, directly towards the south, to the northern tongue of land,

where is the passage over the Great Haff. Here I got into my boat, and crossed a *sea of fire*. I have navigated in all the European seas, but have never found such an abundance of phosphorus as here. The night was calm, warm, and dark, and whenever the fourteen oars dipped in the water, the sea round the boat seemed to be in flames, and a streak of fire extended from one coast to the other. I never saw this phenomenon in so great a degree. If we dipped a pole into the water, and raised it quickly up, the sparks were not extinguished in the air. It seems probable there is some general reason why this sea so abounds in phosphoric animals, and in that destroyer of the ships, in the harbour of Sebastopol, which, in three years, would bore a vessel full of holes like a sponge, unless it was sheathed with copper. A Pallas must decide this question. I will only say, that I am of the opinion of those, who affirm that this insect was formerly unknown in the European seas, and was brought from the Indian Ocean after the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope; otherwise it might be imagined that Strabo, and particularly Pliny, would not have passed it over in silence.

After having doubled the promontory, on which the northern part of the town is situated, the

Harbour of Sebastopol, which gradually becomes narrower towards the east, affords on both sides the finest prospects; to the right Sebastopol, in the form of an amphitheatre, the Southern Bay, the Mariner's Bay, full of vessels, which are here as secure as in a dock; farther on, in the hills upon the coasts, caverns, which are used as magazines for powder, which not only does not lose its strength by the vicinity of the water, but even becomes still stronger, probably on account of the saltpetre in which these mountains abound. On the left bank of the mouth, is the flat northern tongue of land, with the light-house upon it. In the mountains on the coast behind it, are caverns similar to those on the right side, some of which are used for saltpetre-works. From the northern tongue of land to the mouth of the Usen, a small river, which falls into the bay, I rowed in less than an hour; with fourteen oars in the hands of Russian sailors, one may do without wind, and with them, Agamemnon would have had no occasion to propitiate the gods, with the blood of his daughter.

The mouth of the river Usen is covered with reeds. Our boats were entirely concealed in them when we landed on the left bank, where there are upon the mountains ruins of walls and towers, which, to judge by the space which they

occupy, must have belonged to a great and well-fortified town. Its name Inkerman, which, in the Tartar language, signifies *town of caverns*, proves that it was given to this place after the destruction of the proper town, respecting which I indulge in no conjecture farther than that it may have been inhabited by the Chersonites. Some travellers* have considered Inkerman to be the town of Ktenus. I do not know whether there ever was a place of that name. Strabo, as far as I recollect, mentions Ktenus, three times; the first time with the addition of harbour, on the two other occasions he says only Ktenus, but from the whole context [it is evident that it speaks of the same harbour. Ptolemy also mentions Ktenus, but likewise as a harbour, so that I do not see any reason to look here for a town of Ktenus.

The whole Inkerman mountain is pierced with caverns. Pallas very justly conjectures that monks of the sect of the Arrians, who were persecuted by the Byzantine emperors, found

* Among others, Madame Guthrie, in her tour through the Taurida. It is written in a light agreeable style, and displays a lively imagination; unfortunately she is often guided by her imagination, even in the historical part; thus, for instance, speaking of Perekop, she confounds the Thracian with the Tauric Chersonesus.

refuge among the Chersonites, who were Arians like themselves, and as there was no room in the town, made cells for themselves in the neighbouring mountains. The most remarkable of these caverns is directly under the fortress, about two-thirds of the way up the mountain. Two flights of steps lead to it, one of which may still be ascended with tolerable safety. The church here, hewn in the calcareous rock, is interesting. Its architecture, which is in a good style, falsely called Gothic, pleased me very much. It is in the form of a semi-ellipse, the vault is light, the altar stands opposite the arch, which serves as an entrance, and in the walls on both sides, there are recesses, in which altars probably stood.

The just proportion of the parts, observed in all these, is a proof of the taste of the architect. Over the high altar, there are still traces of images of the saints painted on stone, but time, and above all, that ignorance, which has condemned the most important places in Taurida to desolation, have defaced them so effectually, that it is impossible to judge, not only of the perfection of the painting, but even of the drawing. I tried the effect of throwing water on the walls, as they do at Pampiü, but without success. In one of the two rooms attached to the

church, and which perhaps served to keep the church plate, &c. there is a staircase, which is much decayed, and dangerous to ascend. It leads to the top of the mountain, where the ruins are. It probably served as a communication between the church without, and that under ground. The remains of the fortress, now consist of walls, towers, and a deep ditch on the west side, where we must suppose the main entrance into this fortified town. There are, besides, on the south-east edge of the mountain, the remains of a building, which communicated with the caverns, by means of steps, which are now impassable.

This place must not be passed by, without attention. The remains of the staircase, or of the terrace, form directly over the declivity of the mountain from the strata of stone, which lie above each other, a square place, where one may rest and enjoy the delightful prospect of the Inkerman valley, with the Usen winding through it.

After having visited these parts, I crossed to the left bank of the stream, over what remains of the bridge, three pretty high arches, built with great solidity, as they have resisted for so many centuries, the shock of the winter torrents, in a narrow valley. The mountain on

the south side, resembles, in every respect, that on the north side. It contains caverns precisely similar, and a church of the same architecture as the one I have above described, only a little higher. There is, besides, in the caverns on this side, a broad and lofty gallery, which leads from the church to a spacious apartment, with a large opening, which serves to afford light. It is probable, that there were similar galleries between this and the caverns of the other mountain, which is now converted into a powder magazine. The left bank of the Usen is in general more picturesque than the right ; on the one side a rock, rises in a slope above the valley, and forms, in several places, an angle of 70° , with the foot of the mountain ; on the other are majestic serpentine trees, scattered over a small meadow, where the vegetation, by the combined effects of the sun and moisture, is extremely flourishing.

BALAKLAVA.

“The smaller the number of strangers that visit a country, the greater is the hospitality of the inhabitants ;” such is the conclusion of some observers of manners, which, I think, is not very favourable to the human heart, and perhaps, not just. Taurida, at least, is an exception to the rule ; a great number of travellers visit it every

autumn, and I have no where met with more kind hospitality than here. I am now in the house of the worthy veteran commander of Balaklava, where I feel quite at home, and I am told, that he receives, in the same manner, all strangers that visit him, and the whole family vie with each other in kindness and attention. His neat and pleasant dwelling, is situated at the end of the town, on the west side of the harbour, which, being confined between two high mountains, rather resembles a river than a seaport. Opposite my chamber, a Genoese tower seems suspended on the edge of the rock, directly over the mouth of the harbour. This fort, **Tschembalo**, which formerly belonged to the Greeks, and afterwards to the Genoese, was surrounded by a high wall, and strengthened with towers, particularly at the mouth of the harbour.

The majority of the inhabitants consist of Greeks, descendants of those sailors, who deserted to us, when our fleet was in the Archipelago in 1770. After the peace of Kaynardsby they first settled at Taganrog; but when the war broke out, which ended in the entire conquest of the Crimea, they were sent to Kaffa, whence they drove before them the poor Tartars, without mercy, along the entire southern coast, and

would without doubt have driven them into the sea, had not the peace stopped the pursuers at Balaklava, where they settled and still reside, hated by the Tartars, who call them Arnauts.

I had almost forgotten to say, that the Greeks, who at first were about 2,000 and more, are now reduced to 440, being the full complement of the Greek battalion, which is employed in occupying the posts along the coasts as far as Sudak. Their uniform exhibits a sample of all nations from Homer to our times: their leather helmets, for instance, is the *Kinea*, their upper garment, an English spencer, their waistcoat that of the Hussars, and their red trowsers are as ample as those of the German Barons in the middle ages; add to all this high boots, and you will have a just idea of one of these Arnauts.

From Balaklava to the mouth of the Usen, in a straight line through the Tartar village of Kaduikoy, is twenty stadia, *i.e.* eight wersts; and on this whole space, which forms the isthmus, there are the remains of an ancient wall. It is the same fortification as Strabo mentions in his account of the war between Mithridates and Scylurus. "The Scythians," says he, "had made their way through a wall and filled the ditch with reeds, over which they passed as by a bridge; but the king's soldiers set fire to the

reeds in the night, and fought till they had repulsed the enemy." Small hills, at short intervals from each other, running in a direction from north to south, are indubitable indications of this wall ; but as to the ditch, no traces whatever are now to be found.

BAKTSCHISARAY.

The evening was setting in, when I arrived near Baktschisaray and entered the defile in which it is situated, and the last faint rays of light were vanishing, when I drove down the long street which leads to Chan-Saray (i.e. the palace of the Chans), situated at the eastern part of the town. When I entered the first court of the palace, it was nearly dark, which however did not hinder me from wandering in the courts and apartments of the Tauric Alhambra; and the more indistinct the objects about me grew, the more busy was my imagination.

After passing through the gate, I found myself in the first court-yard, a spacious parallelogram of which the shorter side opposite the entrance joins a garden terrace, and the two longer sides are occupied on the left hand by a mosque and domestic offices, and on the right by the palace which consists of various buildings of different sizes. On this right side, you pass through a gate

under the building itself to the inner court, where, on the left hand, there is an iron door with arabesque ornaments, and a spread eagle over it, which has succeeded to the Turkish Crescent. This is the entrance to the great staircase, over which is the following inscription in Arabic :

“ This gate is governed by the acquirer of this territory, the supreme lord Gadshy-Gerai, son of the Chan Mengli-Gerai-Chan. May God the Lord grant to the Chan Mengli-Gerai, together with his father and mother, happiness both in this life and in the next.”

Over the same door a little lower, is the following :

“ In the year 959, the lord of two seas and of two lands, Gadshy Gerai's son, Mingli-Gerai Sultan, Sultan's son, was pleased to command the erection of this magnificent gate.”

This door leads into a spacious hall, with a marble floor, on the right side of which there is a broad staircase leading to the upper apartments. In this hall are two fine fountains, which incessantly pour their waters from the wall into marble basins ; one opposite to the door, the other on the left hand. Over the latter is the following curious and interesting inscription :

“ Thanks to the most High God ! The coun-

tenanee of Baktschisaray is again become cheerful through the benevolent care of the most serene Kerim-Gerai-Chan. With prodigal hand he has appeased the thirst of his country, and endeavours to confer still further benefits, if God gives his aid. By his efforts he has opened a fine stream of water.

“ If there is any other equally beautiful fountain, let it shew itself. We have seen the towns of Scham and Bagdad, but have no where found so noble a fountain.”

“ This inscription is composed by a writer named Scheichy. The man tormented by thirst will read through the water, which issues from the pipe as thin as his finger, these words. But what do they announce ? Come drink this transparent water, which flows from the purest source : *it gives health !*” (If these last words are converted from letters into numbers, they give the year 1176 of the Hegira).

Over the fountain, opposite the door :

“ Kaplan-Gerai Chan, Gadshy-Selim-Gerai's the Chan's son. May God forgive them both, the father and the son, their misdeeds. In the year 1176 (of the Hegira.)”

Not to pass over any thing in the ground floor, we mention a broad gallery, leading from the left corner of the wall opposite the door to the

private chapel of the Chan, over the door of which the following is written :

“ Selamid-Gerai-Chan, son of Gadshy-Selim-Gerai-Chan.”

Another door on the left hand of the same gallery is the entrance into a large room, where there are divans against the walls, and a marble fountain in the middle. This delightful retreat must afford a refreshing coolness, during the sultry season, when the mountains round Baktschisaray are scorched by the heat. A third door leads to the divan of the Chan, or Great Council Chamber, to which there is another entrance through an ante-chamber from the great courtyard.

The description of one of the apartments in the upper story, will give a sufficient idea of the whole, the only difference between them being the greater or less quantity of ornaments on the walls. As the façade is divided into projections, the principal rooms are lighted on three sides. The only entrance is by a side door, which is not observed on account of the pilasters in the Arabic style ; between them, along the whole of this dark wall, are closets which are likewise not to be recognized. Above them, in the better apartments, are windows reaching to the ceiling, between which stand various ornaments modelled

in plaster, such as vases with fruits, flowers, or little trees, with different kinds of stuffed birds.

The ceiling, like the dark wall, is of wood, very beautifully wrought: it consists of a thin gilded lattice, worked upon a varnished dark red ground. The floor was covered with a fine kind of matting which I have also seen in Spain. As a defence against the heat of the sun in rooms lighted on three sides, the windows, besides having shutters, are glazed with coloured glass, the favourite ornament of the knights castles, which the Europeans doubtless borrowed from the eastern nations during the Crusades. If we add to this general description a divan, that is, cushions which were formerly of silk, placed along all the walls except the dark side, we shall have an idea of the finest apartments in the palace, except three or four which were fitted up in the European style for the Empress Catharine II. Of all the parts of this building, the Harem of the Khan is the most gone into decay.

Opposite the great gate at the end of the court-yard, which is next to the mountain, are terraces in four stages upon which fruit-trees and vines are planted, and from which transparent fountains fall from one stage to another into stone reservoirs. But this fine work, like all the monuments in Taurida, presents only the

image of desolation. One cannot but regret the water, which is the greatest treasure of this country ; many of the pipes are stopped up, and several of the springs have entirely disappeared.

Behind the mosque, out of the court-yard, is the burying-place of the Khans and Sultans of the reigning house of the Geraians. Their remains repose under tomb stones of white marble, shaded by lofty poplars, walnut, and mulberry-trees. Here lie Mengli and his father, the founder of the power of the Crimean kingdom. All the monuments are covered with inscriptions, but they were unintelligible to me, and it is a pity that no intelligent man acquainted with the Arabic language has hitherto taken the trouble to copy and translate these inscriptions. Though these are not Arundel marbles, they would throw great light on the history of the Crimea, which is so intimately connected with ours since the fifteenth century, till the subjection of the Peninsula to the dominion of Russia. At all events, I would advise that no time should be lost, as many columns with turbans already lie on the ground overgrown with ivy.

A turban carved in mould'ring stone,
A pillar with rank weeds o'ergrown ;
Whereon can now be scarcely read,
The Koran verse, that mourns the dead.

In the same cemetery, but in an open spot beyond the wall of the mosque, are two rotundas with cupolas, where empty coffins lying on the ground without any order, mark the burial place of those princes who preferred a stone vault to the canopy of heaven. These coffins were formerly covered with cloth, but at present only the bare planks remain; on some few are fragments of black cloth, and on some the names of the deceased are fixed in the Russian language, for which we are indebted to the care of Mr. Ananitsch, the chief of the police at Baktschisaray. I looked in vain for one of the reigning Khans, there are only a few names of Sultans left.

Before we quit this Valley of Death, I must notice a hill to the left of the upper terrace upon which stands a handsome building with a round cupola. This is the Mausoleum of the beautiful Georgian, wife of Kerim Gerai Khan. Like another Zaira she governed by the power of her charms, him, whom all else obeyed; but for a short time only, she died in the very flower of her age, and the inconsolable Kerim erected to her this monument. I wished to pay my respects to the tomb of this beauty, but it is now inaccessible, the door being bricked up. It is singular that all the inhabitants of this place will have

the fair Georgian to have been a Pole, and even a Polotzka whom they pretend Kerim Gerai carried off from her own country. In spite of my assurances, that this tradition had no foundation in history, and that it would not have been so easy in the latter half of the eighteenth century for the Tartars to carry off Polish women, they insisted that this beauty was a Polotzka, and I can discover no other reason for this positive belief than the generally received, and confirmed opinion that female beauty is an inheritance of the Polotzky.

On my return I heard the voice of the Mulla who from a lofty Minaret was calling the faithful to prayers. I was going to enter the Mosque, but was forced to remain at the door; the Tartar porter reminded me that it was not permitted to enter the mosque except with bare feet. But when I showed him that I had on boots and not slippers, he instantly guessed my embarrassment, and conducted me from the court-yard by the outer staircase into the room where the Khan used to attend prayers at a window that looks into the mosque. The Congregation was small: they all sat with their legs under them, and on a signal given bowed their faces to the earth, and rose all together. The Mahometan worship addresses itself neither to

the heart, nor to the imagination, and their temples are mute. That of the antient Greeks instead of raising the mind to heaven drew down the gods to earth, and in the midst of cheerful, often splendid solemnities the Polytheist seemed as if he was eager to deceive the ever wakeful fates by an uninterrupted series of enjoyments.

The sublime christian worship nowhere makes so powerful an impression on my feelings as in our antient cathedrals, where light and shade alternate at every step; where the faint glimmer between the pillars, the gloom in the corners of the building, and under the low heavy arches, the dazzling light of the lamps and tapers round the altar—present as it were an image of the terrors of death; the presentiment of a better world, and the hope of glory beyond the grave. Of all this we find nothing among the Mahometans, either in their temples or in their ceremonies. All is rigid like stern necessity, and cheerless as inexorable predestination. With these sentiments I left the Mosque and returned into the rooms; the moon already shone above the mountains, and I went out upon the terrace.

It has been justly observed that fine buildings have a better effect by moon-light than in the day-time. I have often sat whole hours on moon-

light-nights in the theatre of Verona, and the Coliseum at Rome enjoying the monuments of the grandeur, and taste of antient architecture ; but here a scene presented itself which cannot be described, and which must be seen to be understood. To give you some idea of this picture, I must have recourse to a comparison of classic with romantic poetry. In Rome and Verona we have Virgil: elevation, proportion, dignity, and taste. Here, Ariosto and Shakespeare, unbridled fancy, majestic, but savage nature, mysterious forms, and with them Angelica and Desdemona. But you will ask where are the objects, with which I compare these two kinds of poetry ? Here, around me, my friend, on the summits of the mountains, which enclose Baktschisaray. Here I see a tower, suspended over the abyss, and ready to fall, farther on an obelisk, and near it a desolate city ; there is an immense pyramid perhaps the sepulchre of some chief, conqueror of this country. While I was contemplating these objects in which nature seems to have imitated art, it was impossible not to think of Dante. This hollow in which Chan Saray stands, this *Cerchio*, the belt of mountains with the wonderful objects upon them, the faint light of the moon, *L'ora del tempo e la dolce stagione.*

Everything recalls the images of the immortal poet of Florence.

It was long before I could leave the terrace. From the dreams of poetry I passed to the reminiscences of history. How long, thought I, is it since commands issued from this palace to the hordes who desolated my country. How long is it since the ambassadors of the Khan demanded tribute from the Russians, and since our proud princes were humbled before the descendants of Batu! Everything is changed. The lovely Taurida, since time immemorial the prey of the most powerful, is at length under the dominion of Russia.

My preparations for my journey along the southern coast were now completed. The traveller in Taurida must absolutely have a guide without whom he dare not venture a step out of the main road. I already had an interpreter and firman; but Ibrahim (my interpreter) unfortunately was taken ill, and I should have remained without a guide, had not a happy chance relieved me from my embarrassment. When I had already written to Sympheropol for another, the sudden trampling of horses in the court-yard announced the arrival of travellers. I hastened to the window and saw a lady—an Amazon

with a train of Amazons, and a Tartar with them.

Nothing could be more apropos; the lady had finished her tour, I was commencing mine; she no longer required a guide, and I therefore without delay engaged Memitsch Morsan, and employed him to put the pack-saddles in order, to purchase a Tartar saddle, and procure horses for our journey to Tschufut Kale.


This Jewish fortress is on the high road three wersts from Baktschisaray on an elevated rock, the way to which goes along a ravine through which the Suruk Su winds and loses itself among the rocks. It was the essay of our mountain tour, and our first acquaintance with the Tartar horses. After we had ascended from the town towards the east, on the right side of the defile, half way up the mountain, we were obliged to alight, it being impossible to proceed on horse-back. We therefore went on foot over some steps hewn in the rock into an antient convent, of which nothing now remains, but a church called the assumption of the Virgin which is in a cavern of the mountain. I found in it nothing remarkable, except a balcony close to the church suspended in a frightful manner over the precipice. I was told that so great a number of persons had once assembled here that the church

could not contain them, and many went into the balcony which began to crack under the weight; since that time the police of Baktschisaray takes precautions on the festival of the assumption to prevent the people from crowding upon it. To the left of the stairs, within the mountain, before you come to the church, there is a wooden chamber which is suspended on the outside of the rock like a swallows nest; this is the dwelling of the guardians of the temple a very old deacon, a Greek, with his wife. They invited me into their airy abode in which there is hardly room for four persons; the old woman presented me some grapes on a piece of an antient vase. I asked them if they were not afraid in this frightful solitude especially in winter, during the long dark nights when storms and tempests rage. No replied the deacon we are accustomed to it. During the storms our bird's cage sometimes trembles, and shakes with the violence of the wind, but we sleep soundly — “and are you alone?” We have no one with us.—“What said I,” looking towards the window, “is that which appears so white?” Those are crosses over graves; a burying ground where some of the christians of Baktschisaray repose, and we, added he, looking at his aged companion, we shall likewise rest there and sleep together. May

your wish be accomplished happy pair! It was not by transforming their hut into a palace that the gods rewarded the piety of Philemon and Baucis, but by not suffering one to survive the other.

After we had returned to the place where we had left our horses, we rode along a foot path which wound by the declivity of the mountain above precipices, and here we learnt how sure footed the Tartar horses are. On this path we rode round the fortress, and came on the southwest side of Tschufut Kale into the defile, and into a magnificent grove full of monuments with Hebrew inscriptions; it is the burying ground of the Caraites, which they call the Valley of Josaphat. Thence the way leads into the fortress, steep indeed, but, however a road, and not a footpath, and from this side is the best approach to Tschufut Kale.

Venice is a city in the water, and Tschufut Kale in the air; in the former the buildings swim in the sea, the habitations of the Karaites hang like eagles nests from the summit of a steep, inaccessible rock. The walls of their houses seem to be a part of the perpendicular rock from which they are not to be distinguished by their colour, and when seen from the defile look like the ramparts of an old fortress. The town



is very neat and cleanly ; no European capital can boast of ~~such~~ a pavement, for the whole is continued slab, the rock upon which it stands. There is, however, nothing remarkable in it, except its situation. and the inhabitants, who merit some attention.


The Caraites are in their manners and mode of life, Tartars, but in their religion Jews, and we may say *genuine* Jews, for they have preserved the law of Moses among them, in greater purity than all the others. When the Talmud first appeared in the beginning of the fourth century, it was rejected with contempt, as unworthy of the word of God, by all Jews of sound judgment. This rejection, however, did not cause any evident schism in religion till the 8th century ; when Aaron and his son Saul, Babylonian Jews, openly exclaimed against traditions that did not agree with the Holy Scriptures, and separated from the adherents of the Talmud, since that time their opponents are distinguished by the name of Rabbinists, while they themselves began to be known by that of Caraites. The number of the Caraites is very small in proportion to that of the Talmudists, for at the beginning of last century they were estimated at only 4430 in Europe and Asia. The chief differences between them and the other Jews are, 1. They reject the

law of tradition, i. e. the Cabala, as an invention which has nothing in common with the law of Moses. Hence, 2, their extraordinary abhorrence of the Talmud, and, 3. they observe the Sabbath with still greater strictness than the Rabbinists. I must add, that they are far more cleanly and domestic than the other Jews.

I visited their school or synagogue. The Rabbi shewed me a roll of parchment containing the Old Testament, in a case of black velvet, with silver ornaments. This roll, like all old books, is written from the top to the bottom, and is rolled about a cylinder in the middle of the case. On my asking if the whole of the Old Testament was there, I was answered that all was there, but whether this *all*, meant the five books of Moses and some of the prophets, which the Caraites receive as divine revelations, or the whole of the books of the Old Testament, including the Apocrypha, I cannot say; for my Rabbi understood the Russian but indifferently, and my guide had certainly never heard of the Old Testament, and had probably, hardly an idea of the Koran.

ALUSCHTA.

I am in the promised land of Taurida, on the South Coast. A wall is placed between me



and the north. Though Boreas may rage on the other side, Pomona reigns here. It is long since I have so revelled in enjoyment as in the midst of the luxuriant scenery of this spot.

Leaving Baktschisaray, I arrived the same evening at Sablü, where I was welcomed with that kind hospitality which I have experienced throughout the Crimea. The next day was spent in preparing for my journey, and the day following I took leave of my kind host, and pursue my journey through the valleys watered by the Salgir, which may be called the greatest blessing to the inhabitants, since it fertilises their vineyards, gardens, and fields, with its numerous arms which extend on every side.

He who has travelled among lofty mountains, needs no description of the delightful prospects which here meet the eye at every step. When I compare those I have seen elsewhere, with those in the Crimea, the latter seem to me to have some peculiar features which I have not remarked, either in the Pyrenees, or the Swiss Alps. In those the imagination is affected by the striking contrast between the terrible and the pleasing; and here, by the sublime passing by gentle gradations into the agreeable, and particularly by the sea, which surrounds the foot of Mount Jailon.

The farther you advance towards the south, the more lofty are the mountains, the more picturesque the vallies. Wherever poplars with their taper summits rise from a cleft, there is certainly a village with its mosque. In most of them I remarked an appearance of cleanliness and comfort. I never before beheld such poplars; they look, as if jealous of the surrounding mountains, they put forth all their energy to equal them. We were to pass the night in the village of Mamut-Sultan, which has a remarkably beautiful mosque. I alighted at the house of Memet-Mursa, a respectable land owner, who has imbibed from his father the virtue of hospitality. After we had dined, and rested a little, we rode seven wersts to the source of the Salgir, the most considerable river in Taurida, which is here a rivalet, in winter a rapid stream, and in summer scarcely a brook. From its source at the foot of Tschatur Dag, it runs from south to north, past Sympheropol, to the middle of the peninsula, turns then to the north-east, and falls into the sea of Azof. The way over naked stones, to the cavern in which it rises, is so steep and difficult, that we, who were not used to ride on the mountains, were obliged to alight, and descend on foot into the bottom. My entrance into the

cavern was a ridiculous sight enough; three Tartars bared their feet; two went before, and the third carried me on his shoulders. When my Tartar came to the place where the cavern was too low for him to carry me, one of my guides, who clung like a bat to the smooth and almost perpendicular side of the cavern, took me, and led me over the two Tartars that remained in the water, who, at every step held their hands under me. My curiosity might have cost me dear; the day was sultry, and I had heated myself excessively, so that the cavern felt like an ice house, and I was chilled through and through. I ought certainly to have ascended the mountain on foot to warm myself, but instead of that I rode, and did not reach till evening the hospitable mansion of Memel-Mursa, where a good supper, soft beds, and Asiatic luxury awaited us.

The next day, after breakfast, we started again; the road for about 15 wersts was so that a carriage might have passed, but further on it narrowed into a foot-path, gradually winding upwards along the woody valleys, in the interval, where the Jailon, i. e. the southern mountain chain, divides, and leaves an opening to the sea. This opening, about 10 wersts wide, is between Temerdschy the corner

mountain of the northern Jailon, and Babnan, a similar rock of the southern Jailon. When I got to the ridge where the descent to the coast commences, I stopped to contemplate the enchanting prospect before me, the rocks, the mountains crowned with forests of oak, the verdant hills, and the sea which shines at a distance. I rode down to the foot, and arrived here in the evening.

On a hill in the middle of the village are the ruins of the Greek fortress Aluston, the name of which we find with little alteration in Alushta. As far as I could judge, it must have been in the form of a Pentagon. The principal tower at the east corner, towards the sea, was square, the others round. The house in which we passed the night, is the best in the village, and I flattered myself that I should have a good night's rest after my fatigue, but I had scarcely lain down in bed when I felt every symptom of fever, which was doubtless the consequence of my having taken cold the day before. My breath seemed hot, my lips were parched, I was tormented with unquenchable thirst, and expected nothing less than to be laid up with an inflammatory fever. Sleep however overcame my restlessness, and when I awoke with the first beams of the morning sun,

I felt so perfectly well and cheerful, that I could hardly persuade myself I had been so ill the evening before.

KUTSCHUK-LAMBAT.

We made but a short journey of 15 wersts yesterday. We had every where delightful prospects ; the road ascends and descends alternately, sometimes winds among hills, or loses itself in groves, runs sometimes close to the sea, on the sand which is washed by the waves, and sometimes disappears entirely, so that you cannot advance a foot farther ; but the horse every where finds his way, penetrates between immense pieces of rock, and goes along the declivity of the mountain, in an almost imperceptible path, which is so narrow, that on one side you have the steep rock, and close to the other the precipice.

There are two Tartar villages, about four wersts from each other. The larger, called Bijukum, the smaller Kutschuk-Lambat, where we put up under the hospitable roof of our host from Sablü. This house, which is not quite finished, stands on a delightful spot, just above a circular not large bay, which seems to have been dug on purpose, to give this abode a picturesque situation. Directly before the house the sea, shaded with the noblest trees of the hap-

pier climates, with the ravines in its rocky shores afford a highly picturesque prospect. To the right lies the village of Kutschuk-Lambat, rising like an amphitheatre; to the right, and as it were close to you, cape Ajudag, a lofty mountain projecting far into the sea, the grandest I have seen in Taurida. The back of it, which is semi-elliptical, and its black appearance caused by the forests that cover it, induced the Tartars to call it Aju (the bear.) It has indeed some resemblance to that animal, but I am persuaded in my own mind that it is the ram's head, the *Kriumetopon* of the ancients.

In the evening, while I was lost in pleasing reflections without turning my eyes from the enchanting prospect before me, I was agreeably surprised by the arrival of my kind host himself, with his charming daughter. The next day, the whole house was filled with company. First came my old friend, General B——, with a numerous suite, and soon after him first, the governor of Sympheropol, and then, the governor of Caffa. I was here witness to a remarkable scene.

A man from Malaga, who had come to Taurida, sixteen years before, with merinos, had exchanged the life of a shepherd for the profession of gardener, in which quality he was, in the service of our host. The eldest son lived now at an

age to marry ; but where was he to find a wife ? Here he has nothing but the sea before him, and mountains in the rear ; in the village only Tartars are to be seen, but no Tartar girls. This was rather an awkward predicament, but love, they say, guides every thing for the best : in short our Spaniard espies a handsome Tartar girl. How he got sight of her I do not know ; however he formed an acquaintance with her ; he pleased her, and she him ; he assured her that Mahomet was no prophet, and she willingly believing him, eloped from her father's house, and put herself under the protection of the mother of her lover. I saw this girl in the midst of her new family beg the governor for protection, and baptism. It was necessary to hear both parties, to examine whether constraint or deceit had been employed. For this reason the aged father of the girl, and the elders of his village were admitted. O horrid sight ! he beholds his daughter, with her face unveiled in the presence of men ! This was enough to betray her intention. He went up to her and spoke with vehemence. His whole soul was in his countenance, and in his eyes which were suffused with tears. Without understanding the language, I perfectly comprehended that he spoke to her of the faith, that he reminded her of his tenderness, reproached her with ingratitude

and implored her not to abandon her father, home, and God who had given her to him. All was in vain, she stood immovable and mute, with her head bowed down, as if she was afraid to meet the eye of her father, and instead of answering, made the sign of the Cross. The old man began to sob bitterly, when he saw this sign of her apostacy, and threw himself into the arms of his attendants, who led him out of the room. I confess that the inconsolable affliction of the old man affected me; but on the other hand I cannot blame the young convert, and rather wish such events to become as frequent as possible. I have heard a great deal about the Tartars, and many inaccurate opinions of their character. In my own opinion, the whole misfortune consists in their being Mahometans; for a society within a society cannot prosper. The government, as I am told, treats them with great mildness; but the Mahometans are not grateful for the mildness of a Christian government, are lazy and careless. It is true no constraint is used towards them, which indeed would be useless, for constraint never produces any good. To cure them of their indolence and carelessness, they must first become sensible of all the advantages of industry; but then, to do this, they must learn to love their property, and this cannot be till they have

learned to love their country. This however can only take place when everything in it is in harmony with the heart and the understanding of the citizen. But to expect this of a Musulman who lives in a Christian country, where everything is at variance with his manners and customs, and his conscience, would, in my opinion, be equivalent to requiring of him, either contempt of his religion, that is a moral impossibility, or an entire want of religion, against which, God preserve every society.

GURSUPH.

Yesterday all the company set out together, and on the road to this place nothing gave me so much pleasure as the sight of our caravan. It consisted of 70 horses, including the pack-horses; and it may be imagined what a long unbroken train they formed, winding like a serpent through the bendings of the mountains. Had not our day's journey been so short (only eight miles), I should have killed my horse, by riding backwards and forwards to enjoy this moving picture, which is not to be seen in Europe, except on the mountains of the Crimea, and even there, only chance brings together so many travellers as formed our party.

After passing through the village of Gursuph,

we took the first road towards the sea, and saw before us a prodigious building, which we found to be the house of the Duke of Richelieu, to whom the village belongs. The memory of the duke is cherished among these people like that of Las Casas among the Indians. "We grieve to death for losing him," said the bailiff of Gursuph to me. I told him I knew the duke, and this was of more service to me than the best Firman could have been. How greedily did the Tartars listen to what I said of him. "He is the next to the king," said I, "and justly enjoys the confidence of his sovereign; but he still loves to think of this country, and will perhaps one day return to it." Tears sparkled in the eyes of my hearers. "Thank God," they exclaimed, "we love him as a father; but is he loved as much in his own country? we have heard that all is not quiet there." I did not choose to trouble them with political news, of which they have no need.

The name of Gursuph proves that this is the district which Procopius calls that of the Gursubites; and three wersts from it, before you come to the village, you see on a rock upon the sand the ruins of the fortress of the Gursubites, built by Justinian at the same time with that of Aluston. As I rode by the rock on which this

fort stood, I thought it was a mass that had lately fallen from Mount Jailon into the sea, and should have taken no farther notice of it, had not my guide pointed out the ruins of walls and towers, still visible on the steep rocky bank at the foot of the mountain, which the waves wash on all sides.

THE GARDEN OF NIKITA.

At every step we advance, the roads become more difficult, and the prospects more picturesque. When I left Gursuph, early in the morning, the weather was gloomy, and some drops of rain fell. Grey clouds encompassed Mount Jailon. We sometimes ascended into them, and our clothes were wet through, as by a heavy rain. The distance to the village of Nikita is said to be ten wersts. Thence to the cape of the same name, a little more than two wersts, down a steep declivity, through a thick wood. It would require the pen of a St. Pierre to venture on a description of the sublime beauties of this forest, whose primeval trees may give an idea of those scenes, in which the youth of Paul and Virginia blossomed and faded. It was the 6th of October, and not a yellow leaf was yet to be seen.

Hic ver adsiduus atque alienus mensibus æstas.

The vegetable world shines here in all its

luxuriance and beauty. Here are mulberry, pomegranate, walnut, and fig trees, which three men can scarcely span; and numerous other productions of the most favoured climes. The wild vine twines round them, and loads their branches with its heavy bunches of grapes, which it is itself too weak to support. I could have fancied myself transported by some magician to the banks of the Amazons; but the scenes of savage nature vanished, and I saw before me the garden of Nikita rising in terraces on the promontory. On the uppermost terrace stands a small, plain, and convenient house, which was built for the superintendent of the garden; but has besides two rooms, for the use of those who visit this place. The delicate attention to travellers is not confined to offering them every thing necessary for their accommodation, but provides likewise agreeable relaxation and employment for the mind. With this view there is placed in one of the rooms a bookcase, with botanical works; among which I found an excellent edition of the *Flora Rossica*, by Pallas. Noble walks, as in an English garden, lead from the house over the terraces to the orangery, and the dwelling of the gardener: they wind between the beds and nurseries, which are becoming more numerous and extensive in Taurida, and other parts of southern

Russia. To promote this object, lists of all the plants here are annually printed. This is a great advantage to those who are disposed to make use of it, for any body can apply by letter directly to the superintendent of the garden at Nikita, and receive every thing he desires, that is in the catalogue, with the greatest punctuality, and at very reasonable prices. I have seen here myrtles and cypresses, equal to any I have met with in Andalusia or Tuscany: in a word, all the trees and shrubs that adorn the south of Europe, grow here in the open air, only orange and lemon trees are kept in tubs, at which I am surprised, as I have no doubt they would thrive in the ground, if only the precaution were taken of covering them up during the short winter, till they had thoroughly taken root. On the middle terrace, between the upper one, and that in which the gardener's house stands, is a vast hot-house, which at this time of the year is empty, for in October the whole promontory may serve for a hot-house. Thence, by other small walks, we ascended the mountain, and were almost overpowered by the heat before we reached the summit, where there is an open circular temple supported by six columns. It is an elegant rotunda; and on a pedestal in the centre is a bronze bust of Linneus, larger than the life. It is a present of Count

N. P. Romanzow, who is connected with every thing that relates to the diffusion of useful knowledge, and the promotion of human happiness. While I rested myself in this place, I enjoyed the sublime spectacle of the sun setting beyond Cape Ay-Todoro. Another hill, similar to this, is intended for a monument to Pallas, who dedicated his efforts and the evening of his life to the interests of this country.

I spent this whole day in Nikita with real delight. I sat on the steps till late at night, unable to tear myself away from the enchanting picture before me, which was that of summer in its prime. Nothing reminds me of autumn; only the grey mists that envelope the inaccessible summit of Jailon, shew that October is beyond; but here we have a warm delicious air, a pure unclouded sky.

ALUPKA.

On my way over the mountain I should have passed without notice an interesting spot, had not my guide informed me that the town of Sophiopolis is to be built here. A high sounding name! But who can foresee its future destiny? Carthage began in a similar manner, only that more activity was displayed at its foundation than here, where twenty beams lying idle, are the only indications

of an intention to build this place. Farther on there is a country house resembling it, that is to say, an imaginary one ; in truth, there are too many such imaginary country-seats in Taurida, which belong to landowners, who take possession of a tract of land, without taking care to have it cultivated for their own advantage and the general good. If they were but small pieces of land ; but they are extensive possessions which are thus condemned to remain useless. If they were divided into moderate portions in the hands of industrious labourers, and under the eye of careful landowners, they would soon be covered with orchards and gardens, and contribute to the advantage, the ornament, and the security of the whole country ; whereas, now.....

The stage from Nikita to this place along the coast is one of the longest : it is estimated at 20 wersts, but I think it is much more. But it is hardly possible accurately to measure, as it does not run straight for 100 paces together. To describe all the spots that excited my admiration would be but a repetition of the same words ; *euchanting, delightful*. Suffice it therefore to say, that my road lay past the villages of Tartar-Jalta, and Antka which is inhabited by Greeks, to Alupka, which, for the beauty of the situation, is equal, if not superior, to the other places that I have observed

on my journey. The house in which we passed the night is surrounded by an irregular garden of pomegranates, figs, olives, laurel, and cypress trees. I particularly admired the pomegranate and fig trees, which were higher and thicker than any I had seen even in Valencia. The space between this garden and the sea is covered for two wersts with pieces of rock, on which the village is built, at once frightful and picturesque. The masses of rock scattered about present the image of the most awful desolation ; but fruit trees and vines grow between them, and a crystal stream, now murmuring as a brook on the side of the declivity, now falling in cascades from rock to rock, takes its course to the sea. The day was hot, and the night as warm as with us in July. I could not hold out in my room, but spent the greater part of the night in the garden, where I enjoyed the refreshing coolness of the air, and the stillness of the romantic solitude, which was broken only by the noise of the falling waters. All around was silent, and buried in deep sleep ; and that upon masses of rock that had fallen from the summit of Jailon.


KIKINEIS.

Here I take some repose. Past the promontory of Kurtura to the top of the mountain, four

wersts from the place where I passed the night, to the little village of Simeis, all went on pretty well; but at that place a dreadful road down the mountain begins, the very recollection of which makes the blood run cold. Much as my eyes were accustomed to precipices, and thoroughly as I was convinced by experience, of the steadiness of the 'Tartar horses, my heart trembled with horror, when my horse was obliged to step over the abyss, from one stone to another, so that if it had made a false step, I do not say stumbled, both horse and rider must inevitably have perished. But above all, and beyond description frightful, is the corner of the rock, on which you have to ride close to the sea. Rocks piled on rocks stop the way, immense masses being suspended over the head of the traveller, threatening him every moment with the fate of the Titans; the horse stands still, trembling in all its limbs, and anxiously looks round to find a place where it may tread with the least danger. Sometimes, when after some consideration it sees no means of going on, it crosses its fore-legs, sets itself on its hind feet, and in this manner slides down the mountain. There is a place strewn with small fragments, which at every timid step of the horse roll down the precipice. These are pieces of rock which have rolled from the summit

of Mount Jailon, which the fall has broken into little pebbles. There lies an immense mass, which, as if it had been arrested in its descent by some magic spell, hangs suspended by an invisible power, waiting but for a breath of wind to complete its unfinished fall. Just before I reached this frightful spot, I saw a rock in the sea, on which there are some fortifications, like those at Gursuph. It is a pity that Constantine Porphyrogenitus has not recorded the names of all the fortresses, and in the order in which they stood on this coast; we should then know what name to give to this rock, which the Tartars call *Dsiva*: it may, however, be a Genoese fortress.

I write these lines on the roof of a small house, for here the roofs are as flat as at Naples. At Kikineis, and on the whole coast, the Tartars want only three walls to their houses, the rock serving as the fourth. To build a house, they choose a place where a projection in the rock admits of fastening the beams; on these they lay a floor of planks which is covered with turf, so that you walk upon it without thinking that you have a house under your feet. I am sitting on such a terrace, surrounded by Tartar children, who bring me all kinds of fruit on pewter plates. Pleased at such an unusual instance of civility,



I pay my attendants, to their great satisfaction, for all they bring me ; but if I remain sitting long, my purse will certainly be exhausted sooner than their good will. Nor is it in the children only that I observe a certain forwardness towards strangers, which I have not met with in any other part of Taurida. The elderly women do not veil their faces. Pallas describes the inhabitants of Simeis, Limen, and this place, as downright caricatures. He lived long in this country, and was certainly a better observer than I am ; I will therefore not contradict him, but only say, that I did not remark a single ill-made person ; nay, at Simeis, I stood still to admire a boy about 12 years of age, whom Guido might have taken as a model, not of a Thersites, but a Cupid.

BAIDARÛ.

Having completed my tour along the coast, I now rest here against my will, for during the last two days the rain has poured down in torrents. Three wersts from Kikineis, I passed the place where, in the year 1786, a great chasm opened in the ground, and destroyed the village of Kutschuk-Koy. Fortunately it did not occur instantaneously, and the shock of an earthquake saved the inhabitants ; for when they felt it,


and saw the chasm, which had swallowed up the streams, they escaped in time from the village, which was doomed to destruction. Not a trace of it now remains; I saw withered tops of trees rising between the masses of earth; and all around, precipices, chasms, broken masses of rocks, a picture of the most frightful desolation. From this place the road began to ascend approaching towards the summit of Jailon. When we got there, we let our horses out for half an hour, because we were at the foot of the *Merdwen*, i.e. *the stairs*. It must not be supposed that this name is given on account of a likeness to a flight of steps; no: it is really a winding staircase, in a cleft of the mountain, leading from the foot to the summit. The narrow windings between the immense stones, where the horse is forced to bend itself almost double, to pass from one high step to the next, make the descent of this staircase on horseback, not only dangerous, but impossible, so that travellers, and even the Tartars, go down on foot. To ride up, is indeed dangerous, but possible, as I know by experience. My horse, which, as I said, had rested a little, carried me boldly, without stopping, to the top of the *Merdwen*, which Tartars say is half a werst high; as may be believed, if we take into the account the continual

windings. This was the end of my tour along the southern coast: here I took leave of the sea, and of the beautiful southern district, and here, at the first step in the wood of Baidarü, I was sensible it was autumn, both by the dirty roads, and the yellow leaves of the trees.

The whole of the southern coast merits attention; but, in my opinion, the most picturesque part is between Nickita and the Merdwen: the chill breath of the north never penetrates into this happy valley, which is protected on the northern side by a lofty wall of rock, which has a terrific appearance.

The whole of the not very extensive tract between this wall and the sea may justly be called an earthly paradise. On every side are the most enchanting, magnificent pictures; here a grove invites me into its thick verdant arcades; there the hills branch out towards the sea; sheep, cows, and buffaloes graze upon them, and on the other side wanton goats, hanging on the rocks, play with the bushes that grow in the clefts between the stones. I stop, and think I would have this place painted by the pencil of Claude or Poussin. A step farther, and the picture which had charmed me, is succeeded by another of still greater beauty. All at once, a green cape, which was concealed behind a hill, becomes visible, surrounded with

villages, and with a light-house on it, which warns the mariner of the neighbouring dangerous shoals, against which the angry sea incessantly beats, and dashes its foam far upon the shore. And all these sublime and pleasing pictures, are, as it were, surrounded in a frame, on the one side by the sea, on the other by Mount Jailon, the summit of which no mortal foot has ever yet trod. No pen nor pencil can paint the light transparent clouds which hover round the rock like a girdle, while its summit is illumined by the first golden beams of the morning sun. Only eagles dwell on these inaccessible heights, and hover over the head of the traveller, as if to convince him of the falsehood of the notion that the king of birds does not inhabit the mountains of 'Taurida. To this we must add the streams and water-falls, which at every hundred steps flow from the sides of the mountain to the sea, and invite the pilgrim, overcome with the heat, to quench his thirst in the cool and refreshing waters. When riding over such torrents, I frequently noticed the sagacity of the horse; when it has a mind to drink, it does not stop at the brink, but walks in, turns towards the fall, and so catches the water, which runs directly into his mouth. The abundance of these pure and wholesome waters is one of the greatest of the blessings which nature has lavished on this



country. But as in man, so in the whole frame of the universe, the source of life bears within it the germ of destruction: these same waters, whose gentle falls seem to flow only to refresh the traveller, and to vivify the vegetation, undermine, slowly, indeed, but inevitably, the base of the rocks, and cause those dreadful sinkings of the earth, the fatal consequences of which I have seen during my tour.

Beyond Mount Jailon, the road to Baidari goes through a wood, with many turnings, and sometimes with a very steep descent. We did not reach our quarters for the night, till, towards the evening, having travelled no less than forty wersts during the day. All preceding travellers have vied with each other, in extolling the valley of Baidari: I was, therefore, impatient to see it; but I was much disappointed. A valley, inclosed on all sides by high mountains, in which inconsiderable villages are scattered, and whose scarcely perceptible brooks flow into a moderate river, which is dried up in the summer time, might seem an Arcadia, or a Tempe, to Mrs. Guthrie, who is endowed with such a lively imagination that a Tartar pipe appeared to her to be the shepherd's flute of Theocritus. I, for my part, have met with nothing so dull in all Taurida as this very spot. I asked myself whether

this impression was not caused by my seeing Baidarü immediately after the southern coast; whether the influence of the weather might not have had an effect, which had changed from warm summer to a cold autumnal temperature. These circumstances, it is true, were not favourable to the Tartarian Arcadia; yet, making all allowances, I must accede to the opinion of Pallas, respecting this valley, and conclude that it owes its reputation less to nature, than to the imagination of travellers.

TSCHORGUNÜ.

The morning was delightful, contrary to my expectations, and I hastened to leave the pretended Tempe. Three wersts from Balaklava, I turned to the right, and came to this place.

This valley pleased me much better than that of Baidarü, though it is much smaller. A wooden house, in the Eastern style, in the court-yard a basin of granite, surrounded with lofty poplars, and near it, a twelve-sided tower; opposite the house, towards the south, a fine green, covered with huts, which, as I was told, are inhabited by gypsies; on another hill, to the left, a Tartar village, Tschorgunü; behind it, gardens and vineyards, the whole enclosed by mountains: such is the valley which formerly belonged to one of

the Sultans of the house of the Geraians, and which is mentioned by Pallas.

MANGUP.

I rode hither from Tschorgunü in five hours, which reckoning six wersts to an hour, makes 30 wersts : no great distance, it is true, for one who is used to riding ; but the heat was really intolerable, for the whole road is through defiles, where the mountains reflect the rays of the sun with such violence, that neither the shade of the groves, nor the abundance of running waters can cool the sultry air. As I rode along, my attention was attracted by the openings, in some parts of the perpendicular wall of rocks, close below the summit, which were regularly arranged like the windows of a house. My guide affirmed that these caves had been the habitations of hermits. There is such a number of them, that all the hermits of Egypt in the fourth century, might have lodged in them. Who were the Troglodytes that dwelt here? I know not ; but it seems more probable that these openings have been produced by the combined influence of the sun and the water. Beyond the village of Schula, remarkable for its situation among gardens, and for having belonged to Pallas, we had to ascend the mountain of Man-

gup, and my horse, spirited as it was, had great difficulties in reaching the summit. The prospect from this spot is wonderfully beautiful. Sebastopol, the northern chain of mountains, the bays, the light-house, are spread out before you like a picture: the whole embraced an extent of at least 30 wersts, (20 miles.)

The upper plateau of the mountain, where the town formerly stood, extends from west to east, and ends in a sharp wedge, that rises above the valley. Mangup, inaccessible on all sides, except the north, where an attack might be attempted, was fortified on that side with towers and a strong wall, of which there are some remains on the mountain, and in the defiles. I had come up on the south side, on a part hewn almost perpendicularly, and rode over the ruins of the gate, which was formerly fortified with towers, into the open space. Beyond it, on the left, is first, the church (also in ruins) which, from the situation of the altar towards the east, appears to have belonged to Christians of the Greek Catholic Church. On the right are the remains of a mosque, and farther on, towards the acute angle of the mountain, there stands, in the middle, the front of a house, on the two sides of which, that is on the south to the declivity, and on the north to the defile, are the ruins of a

building, or perhaps of the walls, by which this east corner of the mountain was separated from the western principal part of the town. Farther to the east, and some paces from the ruins, I observed a ditch running parallel with them, but could not guess what may have been the use of it, for it does not seem to have been necessary as a defence. At the end of the wedge, directly above the declivity, the lower story of a round tower is still entirely preserved; and under it are caverns hewn in the rock, which I did not venture to explore, as I would rather descend in imagination than reality the decayed stairs which hang over the precipice.

This is all that I found to notice on this interesting mountain; Pallas found it nearly uninhabited in 1794, i. e. there were only a few Caraites there, the ruins of whose synagogue are still to be seen. Lizards are at present the only inhabitants.

I have not been able to discover any historical notice of Mangup, except that in the 15th century, it was the residence of princes who were vassals of the Ottoman Porte, and were, probably, before that tributary to the Tartars. Our learned historian Karamsin seems to me to be quite mistaken, when he says, it is well known that Mangup was formerly a great fortress, and

called the city of the Goths; having been inhabited from the 3d century by the Tetraxitio Goths. But this does not agree with Procopius, who places those Goths on the sea coast, and in a fertile country, whereas Mangup is far from the sea, on a barren mountain, and surrounded with rocks.

BAKTSCHISARAI.

I left Mangup on the north side, and the road through a defile, covered with trees, was so steep that we were obliged to alight. My guide let the horses go loose behind us, and led me by the hand. Half way down the mountain I came to a ravine full of graves, the form of which proves that this was the burying ground of the Caraites, and it may be inferred from their number that Mangup must have been long inhabited by those Jews. On this fatiguing journey I was refreshed by the Cornelian cherry. The fruit was so ripe that it fell from the trees, and in many places literally covered the ground.

Having reposed at Baktschisarai, after the fatigue of my journey, I could not leave it without again visiting the palace, and promenading the town, the principal and handsomest part of which is a narrow street, three wersts long, from the gate to the Chan-Saray. You have here a proof of the industry of the Tartars. All the


houses are shops, where the artisans and tradesmen, with doors and windows open, sit cross-legged on tables and benches, pursuing their several occupations, without looking about, and almost without moving. The chief articles of their manufacture are morocco leather, and knives of very good and durable steel. After seeing all that is remarkable in the town, I could not refrain from going into a Tartar cook's shop. Here there are pieces of fat mutton always ready on little iron spits, which, at the desire of the customers, are roasted in their presence, over a charcoal fire. Without meaning any offence to the Parsian cooks, I must say that I found this Homeric dish not inferior to the *raguona à la brochette*, so famous in French cookery.

SUDAK.

On my way hither I passed through Karasu-Basar, a little town, so called from the black river (Cara-su) on which it lies. There is nothing remarkable to be seen. The inhabitants are a mixture of Jews, Tartars, and a few Russians. The chalky mountains reflecting the sun's rays on the bottom on which the place lies, make it extremely hot. There is a want of good water, which travellers find every where else in the Crimea, though they must take care to provide

themselves with bread in the large towns. When we add, that in windy weather a fine chalky dust fills the eyes and throat, one can hardly conceive how people can live here. They do so, however, and trade in morecco leather, soap, candles, &c. Love of gain attracts Russians also, some of whom have large inns for the carriers who come from Kertsch, Caffa, and Sudak. But the traveller finds no accommodation in them, not even the good natured hospitality, for which our country is so celebrated. The landlord who comes hither from Russia, ceases to be a Russian without becoming a Tartar.

The moon lighted my road over the mountains, where, before I reached Sudak, I met with a phenomenon common here in the autumn, but quite new to me. I had fallen asleep in my chaise; waking, I found we were standing still, and on enquiring the reason, was told, we could not go on, because a dense fog made it impossible to see a yard, and though the road was good, yet as there are precipices on each side, it was not prudent to advance. This lasted about a minute, when the mist became thinner, and dispersed. The chaise drove on, and was soon stopped by another cloud. Two hours after midnight, I saw such a fog, like a cloud between the house where I put up and the hills, and feared that it fore-



boded bad weather, in which I was happily mistaken. The most remarkable object in Sudak is the tower built by the Genoese on the top of an almost inaccessible mountain. From this there is a surprising view of the sea. You see the south coast for an extent of 100 wersts, terminated in the blue horizon, by the promontory of Aju, or as I must call it Kriumetopon.

ESKI KRIMM,

That is Old Crim, on the road from Sudak to Caffa, is in truth only a village ; it may be Solkaty, which was the Tartar capital before Baktschisarai, and is mentioned by the Genoese ; but this is nothing to the antiquity which it may claim, if, as is conjectured, it is Cimmerion, the capital of the Cimmerians, a people, who, after subduing the aboriginal Taurians, first possessed this country as conquerors.

CAFFA (THEODOSIA).

Among the towns in the Crimea which have come into our possession from the Tartars, Theodosia has most the appearance of a city. Fifty years ago it might perhaps offer to the traveller the melancholy prospect of destruction ; I did not find it so. On the contrary, clean and straight streets, a large and neat market place,

a range of buildings on the coast, all has the appearance of a town ; but one thing is wanting, animation, which is the more striking as nature has not given it a fine position. Theodosia lies on a low sea coast, surrounded by bare mountains.

KERTSCH.

There is nothing remarkable on the road from Theodosia here, and I should have passed through this whole steppe, formerly fertile fields, without any attention, had I not been attracted near the village of Schiban, by the traces of a fortification. Little hills running from north to south, at a small distance from each other, shew that a wall once stood here ; and, as the inhabitants unanimously affirm, that there are similar remains along the whole tongue of land of Kertsch, from the Euxine to the sea of Azof, it cannot be doubted that here stood the wall and tower of Asander, raised as a bulwark against the incursions of the Scythians into the territory of the Bosphorus. I have not the smallest doubt that Kertsch is the site of the ancient Panticapea, the capital of the Bosphorus.

The extreme point of my tour through Taurida was the mouth of the sea of Azof, where a lofty light-house is built on a steep coast, to shew at night the entrance to the Bosphorus.

Oct. 26. Yesterday, as the last beams of evening faded on the summit of the Kimmerion, I went out to take a last farewell of Panticapea. Lost in thought as I strayed along the coast of the Bosphorus, I said, Where is thy glory? where are thy monuments, where a stone, or single fragment of the pillar, on which the treaty of amity between Leucon and Athens was inscribed?

All is vanished.

Ne in voi qui resta
Testimonio di voi un sasso solo!
Io sull' arena solitaria e mesta
Voi sovente in voi cerco; e trovo solo
Un silenzio, un orror, che d'alto duolo
M'empie, e gli occhi mi bagna, e il pie m'arresta.



H. B. B. B. B.

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THE SWEET WATERS, CONSTANTINOPEL.

PICTURESQUE SKETCHES
IN SOME
PROVINCES OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.
BY COUNT EDWARD RACZYŃSKI.

THE harbour of Constantinople, formerly called the Golden Horn, is about four miles in length, and at some places nearly two hundred and fifty fathoms broad. During my stay at Constantinople there were about four hundred merchant men in it. At Tersana, on the right shore, I saw the fleet of the sultan, the docks and yards in which the ships of war are built and repaired. Thousands of gondolas, and boats of every size, swarm in the harbour and render it a scene of extraordinary animation. At the Mosque of Ejub, the harbour becomes narrower at a spot where the palace of the Greek Emperor formerly stood. Two small rivers, called by the Turks Alibey Keusu, and Kiahatsu empty themselves into the the corner of the harbour. The Franks

generally distinguish them by the appellation of the sweet waters. The ancient geographers called the first, Kydaris, and the second, Berbyses. The valley, through which the Kiahatsu meanders, is beautiful beyond all description, and the traveller, suddenly passing from the crowd of the city into this delightful solitude, cannot fail to be deeply impressed by it.

On the banks of the Kiahatsu, some thousand feet from its mouth stands a palace of the sultans, called Kiahathane. The style of its architecture is in my opinion not beautiful; the second story, according to the custom of the country, projecting beyond the first. The fore court of the palace is an open space, seven hundred paces in length, where the pages of the sultan exercise themselves in the warlike game, called by the Turks Dschirid. The sultan himself looks at their exercises, and even joins in them notwithstanding the danger attending them even to the players themselves. In this court-yard I saw a battery of heavy cannons which are fired on festive occasions. Several of these cannons are richly gilded in fire, a piece of ill applied luxury which reminds us rather of the effeminacy of the unworthy successors of Aurengzebe in India than the warlike exploits of Soliman.

A broad canal along one side of the court con-

veys water to some fountains of gilt bronze, in a very bad taste, ornamented with carved work and foliage of all kind. Further on, the same canal is lined with squares of white marble in the manner of a chess board, and forms a waterfall of ten or twelve feet. On the whole the decorations of the garden are not handsome, and are very much in that corrupt taste which in the seventeenth, and the first half of the eighteenth, century was diffused from France over all Europe; it is even affirmed that the garden of Kiahathane was really laid out by Frenchmen in the eighteenth century. There is, however, a beautiful Kiosk, supported by pillars of white marble, richly and tastefully adorned with gold, the floor is covered with costly carpets, and the furniture with silver tissue.

Immense cypress and plane trees give great beauty to the valley of Kiahathane. The Turks set such a high value on large shady trees that they are accustomed to accommodate the form of their houses to the trees standing about them. Their architects often include a tree within the building to be erected, and in such cases the lofty cypress or the spreading chesnut passes through the wall or the roof, and rises above it. Thus, I saw a very old plane growing through

the roof of a fountain, near the imperial palace at Kiahathane.

Numerous companies of men and women filled the neighbouring groves, and the gardens of the sultan in Kiahathane, where, in the absence of the court, the public have free access. This concourse of several thousands of persons of both sexes, gave me an opportunity of observing a very characteristic feature in the manner of the orientals. In the Christian countries in Europe, the wish of appearing amiable to each other, draws the two sexes nearer together. The Turks seem to be perfectly indifferent to the charm which woman can give to social life. I saw in Kiahathane numerous groups seated on the grass engaged in cheerful conversation, but they always consisted of persons of the same sex.

My stay of several weeks at Constantinople had already satisfied my curiosity. I had made myself pretty well acquainted with the capital, and its immediate environs, and the sight of the sea of Marmora excited an ardent desire to visit the places on its shores which are so celebrated in history. On the 10th of September, when we sailed upon this interesting voyage, we saw the sultan, who at the head of numerous richly orna-

mented barges and gondolas had just left the Seraglio, to proceed to the country palace Be-shiktash. The principal officers of the court, the Kjslar-Aga, the Bostandgi-Baschi accompanied the sultan. Numerous salutes were fired by the batteries of the arsenal, and by the Turkish fleet, which had lately returned from the Archipelago. The ships were adorned with the gayest flags, the channel was crowded with boats of all descriptions, and our light bark glided between the floating castles, which were half enveloped in the smoke of the artillery.

We were favoured by a brisk north wind, and had soon sailed past Scutari. On the north and west side of that town are several burying grounds, the great extent of which is out of all proportion with the place, which has only forty thousand inhabitants. In fact, the number of mussulmen here buried is much greater than the amount of deaths in Scutari, because even the Turks residing in the capital choose to be buried here, on the Asiatic coast, rather than near Constantinople. The reason of this singular predilection is the belief, in a prophecy, universally known in the Turkish Empire, according to which, the Russians are one day to drive the Turks from their European provinces, into Asia, which latter part.

of the world is destined by providence to be for ever the possession of the Mussulmen.

To the east of Scutari, on the sea side, is the village of Kadikeu, on the spot, where in the year 665, B.C. the Megareans founded their colony of Chalcedon. At some distance from the village of Kadikeu are the Princes Islands, so called, because according to an ancient tradition several Greek princesses were kept there as prisoners. The view from this spot over the sea of Marmora is extremely beautiful. The landscape painter is charmed with the soft, mild, azure tone which remote objects assume in this country, whereas in our northern climates they seem veiled in a cold grey mist. It is in the representation of this warm, transparent atmosphere, peculiar to the southern countries, that Claude Lorraine is so happy, and this is one of the chief excellences of his landscapes.

The first of the Princes Islands, called Prote, is uncultivated. The second is called Autigone. The third, Kalko, bore in antiquity the name of Chalkitis, and was celebrated for its copper mines. They are at present quite neglected, and its inhabitants are ignorant of the existence of the treasures which they disregard. In this island Edward Barton is buried, who resided several years at

Constantinople as ambassador from Queen Elizabeth. With sentiments of respect, and gratitude I contemplated the grave of this man, who in an important diplomatic negotiation powerfully defended the interests of my country. In the year 1590 the Cossacks, at that time the faithful feudatories of Poland, had surprised and plundered the Turkish frontier fortress of Bender; Sultan Amurath III. demanded an indemnity of three hundred thousand dollars; at the same time he required King Sigismund III. of Poland, and his nation, to embrace the Mahometan religion. The disgraceful proposal was rejected, and a sanguinary war seemed unavoidable. In this critical moment the English ambassador came forward as mediator, and declared, in the name of his sovereign, the universally dreaded Elizabeth, that the cabinet of London, faithful to its engagements with Sigismund, was resolved, in case war should be declared, to take his part. This declaration of the English ambassador induced the Divan to withdraw its arrogant pretensions, and the difference was amicably adjusted.

The fourth and largest of the Princes Islands is called Prinkipo. This agreeable spot was very animated; several foreign ambassadors, and many European merchants, had hired

country houses, where they resided in the fine season. But since the last plague which carried off many persons in Prinkipo, the Franks have forsaken this island.

Rachib Pascha, who under Mustapha III. filled for several years the post of grand Vizier, had formed the wise plan of establishing a quarantine here, and so, to secure the capital of the empire from the plague. The premature death of this statesman prevented the execution of his beneficent plan.

Our pilot, who was better acquainted with the northern coast of the sea of Marmora than with the southern, determined to sail along the former. With my telescope in my hand I observed all the places on the Asiatic coast of the Propontis which are celebrated in history.

After experiencing a storm which obliged us to put into a little bay near Aya Stephano, we reached, on the 11th of September, Brekli, called in antient times Heraclea. The plague which raged in this town hindered me from entering it to look at least for the ruins of the noble buildings, with which it is said to have been adorned in the sixth century. According to the testimony of a contemporary historian it was at that time inferior only to the capital of the Greek empire. I found in Erekli no trace

of ancient buildings except here and there the fragments of the city walls still standing, an arch of hewn stone, and some marble columns, the clumsy capitals of which seemed to me a sufficient proof that they belonged to a building erected in the middle ages.

On the 14th of September I visited the island of Tenedos. The only town, situated on the east side, was burnt down by the English and Russians in the year 1809, and the castle blown up. A large bay affords shelter against north, south, and west winds. The sandy bottom is excellent, and the road so deep that large frigates may lie at anchor in it. The ancient city in the island of Tenedos is called Aeolis, this place, as well as the celebrated temple of Apollo Smintheus, are entirely destroyed, but I thought I observed on the other side of the town some ruins which appeared to indicate that a considerable building had formerly stood there. Whether it is a monument of antiquity, or what is more probable was built by the Venetians or the Turks, cannot well be determined without excavations.

We passed a whole day at Tenedos; at sunset we weighed anchor, and steered to the island

of Lesbos. A gentle north wind scarcely swelled our sails ; a mild serene night had succeeded a hot, sultry, summer day. Notwithstanding the natural loquacity of the Greeks, profound silence prevailed among our little crew. Every one seemed to indulge in the feeling the happy climate excites in persons in health. Half the night had passed, when the pilot rose, and asked a Greek who accompanied me what might be the object of my voyage : “ This Pole,” said he, “ is “ not a merchant ; nor does he collect coins, as “ the English do, who visit these countries.” “ I wish to be acquainted with your country.” said I, “ which has produced so many learned men. A poem which celebrates the heroic actions of your ancestors, has made your nation interesting to all Europe.” I then related to him the most remarkable circumstances of the Trojan war, adding that the Asiatic coast, which lay before him, was the scene of those important events. My companions listened with the greatest attention ; when I had concluded, the pilot asked when all this had happened. “ About three “ thousand years ago,” I answered ; upon which he gave me to understand, that he considered the whole to be a fable, because three thousand years ago, he said, there were no Christians, and



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RUINS of the THEATRE AT AMON..

consequently there could be no Greeks. I found this conclusion so chronologically correct that I willingly let him enjoy his own opinion.

The time which I could allow for my voyage was nearly expired, and I was obliged to think of my return. I resolved, however, first to visit the ruins of the town of Assos, situated on the Asiatic coast opposite to Lesbos. Count Choiseul Gouffier has given, in the second volume of his remarkable tour, a view of this place as he supposes it may have been previous to its destruction. We landed upon the Asiatic coast before sun-set, and met with a Greek sailor, who had been a great deal in Italy, and spoke the language of that country with tolerable fluency. It gave us pleasure to hear him speak of the Greeks, Homer, and Herodotus whom he knew at least by name. He was born in this country, and offered to be our guide. With some difficulty we ascended a high steep rock, on which the old town was built. The walls, which are still standing uninjured, accurately shew the form of the old city, the former splendour of which is attested by the blocks of granite of which they are built, the columns, inscriptions, and bas-reliefs which adorned its

splendid edifices, and now lie about in confusion.

The first thing that drew our attention was a spacious theatre. Like all the ancient theatres it is in the form of a half circle. The architect who planned this at Assos has skilfully taken advantage of a hill, which is rather hollowed out. The seats for the spectators are partly hewn in the declivity of the rock itself, and partly built upon it of blocks of granite. On the two sides where the hill takes another turn are two high walls to support the steps adjoining them. The first look at this theatre scarcely leaves a doubt that both the theatre, and probably the remainder of the city, were destroyed by an earthquake. I believe it would not be difficult to collect all the blocks which were employed in building it; but all of them are more or less removed from their places, and some of them lie quite at the bottom, at the orchestrum. This theatre, which is a hundred and forty feet broad, has thirty steps or rows of seats, rising to the height of two and twenty feet; a broad gallery, surrounded with a wall, seven feet high, inclosed the whole, and afforded alone, room for a thousand spectators; the whole theatre could contain at least

seven thousand. The seats or steps were one behind the other, without the backs which are found in most antient theatres, and which Count Choiseul Gouffier has erroneously introduced in his conjectural view of the town of Assos. The walls of the Proscenium are entirely destroyed. The internal arrangement of the antient Greek and Roman theatres is so well known that no mistake can be made in this respect.

Some hundred paces to the south of the theatre lies a small building, in tolerable preservation, which seems to me to have been a bath. The heavy blocks of stone, ten feet long and five feet thick, of which it is composed, have bid defiance to the destructive earthquake. The inner space is filled up with stones and earth, so that we could not find a channel through which, if my conjecture respecting the destination of the building is correct, the water was brought into it, it could not possibly be placed in a more advantageous situation; for we found at a small distance from it, traces of an aqueduct. To the left of this I observed among many heaps of ruins, lying near to each other, mutilated Doric pillars, capitals, inscriptions, all of large masses of granite. The edifice which they once adorned was pro-

bably the senate house of antient Assos. The town walls are perfectly well preserved, and scarcely damaged in some places. I cannot explain how these resisted the earthquake, which destroyed the whole town, and damaged the theatre built upon a rock, nay, partly in it. One gate too is perfectly preserved, which appeared to me, however, rather ill proportioned, resembling a dark Gothic vaulted passage. After going through the gate, we came to a second place, also surrounded with walls, which was the burying ground of the old city. The tombs in this old Necropolis are of very hard granite and have all been opened: it is likely that in modern times people have expected to find treasures in them. One of these tumuli is eleven feet in length, six in breadth, and eight in height, and may have been a family sepulchre. The others are much smaller, suitable to the usual proportions of the human body.

Near the ancient burying ground lies the village of Berran, which is inhabited by several hundred Turks. After resting ourselves for a time in a wretched coffee house, we ascended another steep rock, on which the citadel of Assos stood. High towers of granite, and walls stronger than those which surround the town itself, seem to indicate that this was intended as the last

bulwark against a foreign enemy, or as a place of refuge for the persons at the head of the republic in times of internal trouble and revolution. In fact the position of this place is so strong, that before the invention of gunpowder it might be considered as impregnable. I observed in it a very deep and broad well, hewn in the rock, into which you may descend by a winding staircase.

Standing upon the summit of this mountain, I overlooked at one view the destroyed city and the ruins with which it is filled. In the distance, the coast of Asia Minor stretches towards Ydramit and Smyrna. The craggy rocks of the island of Lesbos rise in large masses, and realize to the spectator the fable of the mountains piled upon each other by the Titans. The broad strait dividing Europe from Asia, appeared to me like an immense harbour, the whole extent of which I could scarcely distinguish. The prospect is grand, and it made upon us a profound impression. Near this spot, according to the custom of the antient Greeks, who always gave to their public buildings a situation suited to their destination, stood a temple with a Doric portico. The pillars, which are uninjured, are lying on the ground as if they were just ready to be set up : they are five feet

in diameter, and quite in the style of the pillars at Poëstum. I saw at this place two slabs of granite, adorned with bas-reliefs, which to all appearance belonged to the pediment of the temple. The style of these sculptures is very imperfect, and put me in mind of the Egyptian hieroglyphics. I saw in the citadel of Assos a round mosque, with a portico of four pillars, surmounted by lofty vaulted roof; the whole building rests upon a foundation very carefully composed of blocks of granite. I therefore believe that this foundation, at least, if not the whole edifice, is antique. An examination of the interior of the mosque might have afforded me some insight into this subject; but I was not permitted to enter it. All the edifices, the ruins of which I saw at Assos, were of granite, and I could not find among the whole a single brick, nor even a stone of a less hard kind. The granite employed in Assos is so hard, that even the most delicate cornices are in perfect preservation. If we consider the labour, and the immense efforts required to build so large a town, of a kind of stone so difficult to work, the astonished spectator is involuntarily impressed with a notion that the men of those times must have been giants endowed with supernatural powers; works, the execution of which, when

we consider the difficulties to be overcome, oppress our imagination, appear to have been quite familiar to them.

On the 22d of September, after sunset, we left this place, which had so highly interested us, and set out for our return to Constantinople.

PILGRIMAGES IN THE EAST,

IN THE YEARS 1815—1816.

BY OTTO FREDERIC VON RICHTER.

Continued.

On the 24th of September, I quitted Tripolis to return to Beirout, whence I intended to make an excursion into the interior of Syria. Having passed by the pretty village of Kalamour, the gardens of which are so pleasant, I saw close to the sea a ruined tower, called Mar Elias; a little farther on are large plantations; above, a church of the Druses, in ruins, but not a single habitation. The remains of antiquity, which are met with in the vicinity of this church, may

very possibly be those of Trieris: I was unable to discover the village of Enty, of which Büsching speaks. This mountainous coast is but thinly peopled, and it is even a desert, except round the villages.

Cape Carouge, or Bel Monte, rises perpendicularly from the bottom of the sea, and has a level summit. At its fort, on the land side, are three khans, which are also called shops, because fruits, bread, fowls, eggs, mutton, wine and brandy are sold in them.

In the vallies surrounding the promontory, the road leads over a white and chalky earth, where the traces of the beasts of burden are deeply imprinted: ancient bridges of one arch, are thrown over the bed of the torrents, which at this time were dry. Farther on, the country is more cultivated, and in the midst of the gardens rises an insulated rock, upon which is the Kalat el Mousellah, a castle built by the Saracens, but now abandoned; from this place, you do not ascend far before you reach the sea coast at Boutroun. The ruins of Botrys seem to have extended to the north of the new town, as far as the promontory, where a tower rises upon heaps of ruins.

The tower of Burds el Rihanisch (tower of the winds), on a naked rock, near the sea, has

nothing remarkable. The steps of the beasts of burden have left on the rocky road, which is at its feet, holes a foot deep, which obliges them to walk with much caution. There is another tower on a mountain near Amschit, a small village, the gardens of which extend to the sea.

The image of the instability of the works of man, accompanied me throughout this country. Djebail did not answer my expectation : Byblos, on the contrary, which is considered as the most antient city of Phoenicia, is still a pretty important little town, situated on the sea shore, and surrounded with towers and walls, which conceal innumerable fragments of columns. It possesses in its territory numerous gardens ; three lofty edifices distinguish this place ; the castle is on the most elevated point, commanding the city and port ; its form is singular, an arcade unites the two walls of a large ruined tower, built by the Franks in the middle ages. Upon this arcade, and upon the walls are placed apartments covered with white cupolas ; similar ones are seen on a convent of Dervishes in the neighbourhood. These two buildings interested me less than the Christian church, which, with the exception of its rounded roof, reminded me of the Gothic style ; the interior is in a very inferior Byzantine taste ; it is

supported by massive pillars : half columns of the Corinthian order, stand against some of them, and its white walls are painted with figures of one colour. Outside, near the entrance, there is a wall, surmounted with a little edifice, in the form of a cross ; the vaults rest on four low pillars, decorated in the Byzantine Gothic style. An interesting relic of antique sculpture, is let into the walls between the pillars. I distinguished upon it, beautiful ornaments, and the winged globe of the Egyptians.

I had desired to be conducted to the castle of Smar Djebail, situated in the mountains, a short distance from Botroun, but I could not prevail upon my guide : he was likewise disinclined to take me to Bairout, by the road I pointed out ; but I obliged him."

Richter having passed by Chasir, and travelled in vallies surrounded by mountains, cultivated in terraces, arrived on the 26th of September, in the college of Mar Seman, belonging to the Maronites : it was formerly a convent, but about the beginning of this century, it was converted into a school. Two professors give instructions in Arabic, Syriac, and Theology, to twenty-seven scholars, and in reading and writing to others who are younger. The number of books is increased by the copies made of them by the scholars. Each of the pupils has a room

on the side of a long gallery, with a platform, on which he sleeps, and below it, is a receptacle for his effects. The school rooms had just been built. Between the lessons, they are engaged in religious exercises, for three or four hours, in the morning and afternoon. A bishop is at the head of the establishment. Those scholars, who, after terminating their studies, embrace the ecclesiastical life, receive their instructions gratuitously; those who are intended for other professions, pay an annual sum of three hundred Turkish piastres. The friends are obliged to furnish the pupils with clothing. The college has a revenue of thirty purses proceeding from its farms.

The Maronite convents are numerous in these cantons. In the evening Richter arrived at the monastery of Harissa, dedicated to Saint Peter and Saint Paul, and belonging to the Fathers of the Holy Land. He met with only one of them there, Father Carlo, who had been interpreter to General Desaix, in Egypt. This convent is one of the richest in books in all the east; it is large and well built, but it is gradually falling into decay; besides, being exposed to every wind, it must be very cold in the winter.

In his excursion, Richter dined with the Sheik Bscharéh, a very cheerful old man, who,

after dinner was concluded, shewed him every part of the house ; it was really a little fortress, though its appearance did not bespeak it to be such. All the walls had loop holes in them, which were concealed with clothes, presses, or some other contrivance ; one press covered the secret door to the staircase, which leads to a gallery : this staircase could be raised like a draw-bridge. There are many other similar provisions against cases of attack, or popular tumult : the latter was what there was most reason to fear at this moment ; the Pacha had demanded from the Sheik a large sum of money, and the latter was engaged in levying it on his subjects, an operation which is generally attended with danger and commotion.

Having arrived for the second time at Bairout, Richter thought of penetrating into the interior of the country. Persons who were well acquainted with it, advised him to assume the Asiatic costume ; he did so, and set out on the 30th of September.

The part of Lebanon which he now traversed, has fewer convents and villages than that which is watered by the Nahr Kelb ; the country is cultivated with care, but less agreeably, and there are fewer gardens. The principal plantations are figs ; a part of the mountain is covered

with firs. Though the roads had been repaired by the Emir, they were still in a bad condition.

The valley which is watered by the Damour, has several mills set in motion by this river. On each side is a rocky wall, farther on a more gentle slope, which is consequently cultivated, and then another steep wall like the first. After ascending it, one is surprised to find, still higher up, villages and gardens. The following day, Richter visited Bechir Emir of the Druses, near Deir-el Kamar: this chief town of the country, resembles a village, and has one mosque. The Emir gave a very good reception to the young traveller, who thought his countenance rather handsome; only says he, "this old man, with his long grey beard, rolls his grey eyes rather wildly, which gives him the air of a cat, ill-calculated to inspire confidence, especially when you know that to secure his own power, he has caused three of his nephews to have their eyes put out."

The palace is built entirely in the Turkish taste. A large court-yard is planted with cypresses, and adorned with fountains and basins, which, as well as the gates, are covered with inscriptions, in Arabic verse. The rooms are paved with marble of various colours; the walls are ornamented either with large blue, red, and

white pebbles, placed horizontally, or with wooden panels, incrustated with mother-of-pearl and looking-glass. Arabic devices, fine carpets, and fountains with marble basins, enhance this oriental magnificence. A pretty kiosk, a large basin with gold fish, and surrounded with flower-pots under a lattice; the prospect of the valley, and the perspective of the sea, complete the charms of this spot, which, in the fine season must be still more delightful. At this moment the valley felt the effects of Autumn. A variable temperature, rains frequently succeeding a serene sky, announced the approach of winter.

Richter leaving to the left Safanieh, a village and oratory of the Druses, saw the beautiful valley in which Mouktara is situated, the residence of Sheik Bischer, one of the principal chiefs of this nation, and at the bottom of which flows the Nahr en Noualy; several streams which have worn ravines on the declivity of the mountain flow into it, and one of them forms a beautiful cascade. In this place large columns of granite, rise amidst woods of silver poplars, rose, laurel, and plane trees, which extend as far as the confluence of the Nahr el Birsch. The traveller was unable to discover to what edifice these columns belonged.

Near the summit of a mountain he reached

the Maronite village and convent of Masch-masch, in the midst of vineyards and mulberry plantations. All the monks were occupied in domestic labours; some were gathering mulberry leaves, others grapes, some winding thread, others, weaving, or cutting out clothes.

“As Lady Hester Stanhope resides here in summer, I sent a messenger to enquire at what hour I could have the honour of paying my respects to her. By a mistake, and not by any fault of mine, I was announced to her as an Englishman: she accordingly wrote to me a note in her own language, expressing the pleasure it would give her to become acquainted with one of her own countrymen: which laid me under the disagreeable necessity of beginning our acquaintance by destroying the hope which she had entertained.

I found her with two slaves, and two little pages in a wretched hut, which had a room at two of its angles. She is tall and robust, and must once have been very handsome, but she has already much the appearance of an old maid. On her head she had a shawl, striped red and white. She wore a short red pelisse over a male dress in the Turkish fashion, and over the whole a white aha with red strings,


like an Arab Sheik. She talks a great deal, and with the teeth closed, in the English manner. Her conversation was extremely interesting to me: she related her expedition to Palmyra, and the conduct of the Arab Emir, who had become her friend, and whose character she could not sufficiently praise. Yet, notwithstanding the delight which this excursion had given her. I observed that she had not returned from it without some fears, especially on account of the enmity that subsisted between two tribes. Next to the pleasure of exercising influence over several chiefs of this country, and even a kind of dominion over others, a fondness for horses seems to afford her the most resources for passing her time. She can here easily gratify her taste in this respect. She spoke of these animals with raptures.

The particulars which Lady Heister communicated to me respecting the political relations of the neighbouring tribes, were very instructive: she especially boasted of having in her service the most desperate rogues, robbers, and assassins, which gave her great power. She had just sent some of them to procure information respecting Mr. Bautin, a French traveller, who was reported to have been assassinated

in the mountains Anssariéh, while he was pursuing his bold resolution of visiting those famous mountains in Caramania.

“After a conversation of several hours, she sent for Abbé Gandolpho, a Roman missionary, who at that time resided with her, and had one of the houses of the peasants assigned me; she has hired several of them in the village. She in general eats alone, and very moderately. I supped with Mr. Gandolpho. After supper I returned to Lady Hester, with whom I chatted till midnight. She appeared to me to be a person of superior understanding, but with her head full of strange ideas, she does well to remain where she is. Though we did not always agree together in opinion, she did not show me the less kindness and attention, and gave me a letter of recommendation for Hamah.”

“The Maronite proprietor of the house where she lodged, and Mr. Gandolpho accompanied me on horseback as far as Djesir. We kept continually ascending. At each winding of the road, the prospect became more extensive; sometimes I perceived the whole of the mountainous country between myself and the sea, as well as Saida and Sur. Villages and convents shewed themselves on all parts of the



mountains, and in the vallies; the country, however, with the exception of some parts, is not so beautiful as the Kesroan. On a mountain below us I saw a white cupola: according to tradition it is the tomb of the prophet Micah, who is highly revered by the Druses.

“There is a nunnery at Djesir. The village is in a delightful situation at the bottom of a narrow valley shaded by noble trees. A servant of Lady Hester was ordered to conduct me first to the caverns of Fakhreddin, and then upon the road to Damascus. The whole of the grottos bear the name of Kalaat (Chateau); they are situated on the side of a steep rock, the ascent of which is very difficult. The natural grottos have been enlarged by art, and are furnished with gates, windows, and staircases. In places where the rock projected in a dangerous manner, it is supported by walls which are now for the most part decayed; thus these caverns were transformed into tolerable abodes, and served as retreats to the heroes of the Druses, yet they could not protect them from the fury of Amurath the Fourth, though they held out a years’ siege.

“Niha and Betikha, are villages belonging to the Druses, lying in a valley on the opposite slopes of a mountain covered with beautiful

trees, and surrounded with grey and barren summits. It is said that an iron mine is worked at Niha; in fact I observed in this canton many indications of that mineral. On the top of one of these mountains, which seemed to me entirely naked, I was surprised to see the village of Djesir with gardens.

“Poplars and walnuts shelter the wells of Bresleh, the last of the villages on this side of the mountain, which are all inhabited by the Druses. I began again to climb the rocks; the mountains became more and more bare and stony, and in their contracted vallies left but very little room for a scanty cultivation. At length I ascended the highest point of two bold summits. I turned round to contemplate once more the beautiful mountains, the delicious vallies, the immense expanse of the horizon, and the sea, and the interesting coasts of Syria and Phoenicia. After having enjoyed at leisure the enchanting picture which I had before me, I thought that I had accomplished one part of my pilgrimage. It is probable, said I, that I shall never again behold this fine country, and I continued my journey towards Damascus.

“From the summit of the rocks which I had reached, I discovered the plain of El Bkaa

(Cælo Syria) through which the Kasemieh meanders, and on the other side Anti-Lebanon, from the point where approaching the sea, it joins Lebanon, to that where the plain opens towards the north. This chain appeared grey, entirely destitute of vegetation, and rising in terraces. The slope of the mountain which I descended, was covered with narrow leafed oaks, which Olivier takes for a particular species, and called *Quercus Libanotis*. I have likewise found this tree on Mount Tabor, its trunk is round, straight, and thick.

The plain of El Bkaa is not so well cultivated as it might be. We crossed the Kasemieh over a bridge of thirteen arches, which leads to a Khan, a little farther on is Aita, a miserable village; the road, alternately ascending and descending, winds between naked hills: the greater part of the vallies are reserved for pasture. On the right and left I descried to the north and south the lofty summits of Anti-Lebanon, which seemed to be about the same height as those of Lebanon.

During the whole day I scarcely saw a living creature, and did not meet with a house till the wretched village of Dimos, where I passed the night in a pretty neat dwelling. My hosts were employed the greater part of the evening

in preparing koubbéh, a dish of which the Arabs are exceedingly fond. They knead hollow balls of wheat groats moistened, which they fill with mutton and herbs, cut small; these they cook in butter, but so little, that the good people eat them half raw. It is heavy and difficult of digestion, for those who are not accustomed to it. To give it a relish, they add the juice of unripe pomegranates; they gave me besides sour goat's milk, and I had every reason to be content with my reception. The women did not conceal themselves, and I was obliged to sleep in the same room with all the family, consisting of the father, his two daughters, and their children.

The road on the following day was the same as the preceding; at sun-rise I was in a desert country, surrounded by bare mountains: afterwards the ground gradually declined, and the valley of Gouta lay extended before me like a vast verdant forest; the towers and domes of Damascus were scarcely perceptible, through the thick clouds which enveloped them. In the distance I saw the lake, and beyond it a boundless plain. I must confess that this fourth paradise of the Mahometans did not answer my expectations.

At the entrance of the gardens of Gouta, is

the village of Mesris, if I rightly recollect the name, the environs of which are quite delightful. The trees in these gardens are of the most beautiful forms, and the limpid streams which murmur beneath their shade, exhale a delicious coolness. The walls are composed of square pieces of turf; the houses are built of a yellowish limestone, taken from the neighbouring mountains, and of bricks dried in the sun, and white-washed. Here and there we see the dead bodies of animals, which the indolent Turks suffer to corrupt in the open air.

To secure myself from any disagreeable adventure which might have occurred to me if I had been recognized as a Frank at the gate of the city, I alighted before I entered. Damascus made a very strong impression upon me. I went through the immensely long streets, with well furnished bazaars on each side, intermingled with well-built khans, baths, and coffee houses, handsomely ornamented. My Mamelouk's dress induced several persons to ask me, as I was going along, whether I had come from Egypt.

I at length arrived, much fatigued, at the convent of the conversion of Saint Paul, belonging to the Spanish monks of the Holy Land, and which contains a school, in which Arabic

is taught. They provided me with a very good room; after supper I called upon Mr. Chabossean, a French physician, who, as well as his interpreter, is extremely deaf. He talked politics without end, boasted of being a Frenchman of the old school, and expressed himself discontented with all the rest of the world.

According to the accounts given me by Mr. Chabossean, and other persons who appeared well informed, Damascus contains at least 100,000 inhabitants. Its manufactures, commerce, and amenity, render it one of the most important places in the east. The public monuments, and the church of the convent may be placed among their number, they are in general magnificent.

I set out under the direction of a Christian, a silk weaver, whom the fathers had given me for a guide. The largest private building which I saw, is the palace of Asad Pacha; it is very handsome, as well as the khan built by the same Pacha. The khan of Soliman Pacha, like the preceding, is of a round form, surmounted by cupolas, by which it is lighted from above, and has numerous basins of water. I visited several small mosques, in which there is nothing remarkable: the minarets resemble those of Egypt. The banners of the Dervishes

is a large street, in which the peasants expose their goods for sale. Farther on is the entrance to the Seraglio, which is the seat of government, and the residence of the Monteselim during the absence of the Pacha: at a short distance are the towers of the castle in ruins.

In this quarter, on the banks of the Barada, are the most considerable Turkish houses, but their external appearance is mean. The horse market occupies several streets. Thence I went to the coffee house of Al-Ouardi, a poor building, but pleasantly situated on the banks of the Barada, shaded by arbours and large trees; a small spot is planted with rose trees. The founder of this place of amusement is buried in the midst of his grove. I wished to see the inside of the castle flanked by towers, surrounded with a moat, and fortified, doubtless, during the time of the Crusades, but the Arnauts who kept guard, refused to admit me. The Arabic inscription carved above the principal gate, is mutilated, and so high, that it is impossible to decypher it.

The large mosque has a magnificent appearance: among its numerous towers, I distinguished only one minaret. The large well paved court is surrounded by elegant arcades, behind which a double row of antique granite

columns, mostly of the Corinthian order, support the roof. The magazines adjoin the exterior wall. In the court-yard is a fountain consisting of a granite pillar, surmounted by an iron crown. There are also several cupolas supported by columns, and a small ancient monument, with marble columns of elegant proportions, which seem to be deeply buried in the ground.

My Christian guide was not very complaisant. I hired in his room Kaddour Aga, a Janissary, who had been driven away from Aleppo. He made me exchange my Mamelouk's cloak for a more elegant one, which agreed better with the dress of the beau monde at Damascus.

It was in this costume that I went to see the Jewish banker Rafail, whose house was so extremely simple without, that I was quite surprised at its internal magnificence. A large court paved with marble of various colours, and adorned with orange trees, flowers, and basins full of water, is surrounded with divans covered with fine stuffs, and leads to the apartments which are richly ornamented, even externally. I was received very politely, and shewn into a room, in the centre of which a lustre was suspended over a marble basin;

around were three estrades, encrusted with mother-of-pearl, and covered with beautiful mats, carpets, and cushions. The walls shone with gold upon the marble and azure ground; they were partly covered with wainscoting, adorned with mother-of-pearl, gold, and looking-glasses. The bed room was no less splendid; the domestic arrangements corresponded with this pomp. They presented us, for I was with Mr. Chabosseau and an oriental writer, sherbet, coffee, and sweetmeats in beautiful silver plate.

For these hundred years the family of this Jew, who holds the first rank here as well as at Acre, enjoys the highest esteem, which it retains by the distinguished talents of its members; they have rendered themselves indispensable to government, notwithstanding all the prejudices of the Turks against them.


My endeavours to purchase antiques, procured me only a little statue of Venus in bronze, and some medals of the same metal. The Greek priest who brought them to me, would willingly have passed off as genuine, some pretended medals of Dioclesian, Constantine, &c. to his great surprise I shewed him that they were false.

Accompanied by my servant Kirkor and my

Aleppo Janissary, we mounted an ass to see the environs. The walls of Damascus are raised upon antique foundations, and very ill-built. I took the road to Salahieh, which is entirely paved with large stones; we crossed the rivers and the beautiful gardens of Gouta, which are remarkable for their luxuriant vegetation.

Salahieh may pass for a suburb of Damascus, this place is well-built, and contains many large houses of hewn stone. They shewed me here as a curiosity the tomb of Moheddin, a Mussulman Saint; it is a vault where his children and disciples are buried. A rich damask cloth with an inscription embroidered in gold, covers the tomb of the saint which is enclosed within a copper railing; the other sepulchres are less ornamented. Ostrich eggs and lamps of various forms are suspended from the vault; the walls are adorned with foliage and inscriptions, and the floor with beautiful carpets.

We ascended an eminence from which the eye embraces at once Damascus, Gouta, Messeh, and the narrow and rocky valley from which the Barada flows. It is said that Mahomet pitched his camp in this place, when he laid siege to Damascus. We see here the Koubbeh en Nasr, a chapel with a cupola supported by four pillars, and beneath you, all



around the hill; a large number of old mosques and oratories in ruins. On the 10th of October, accompanied by Rafail and Hanna Tahakhi, treasurer to the Pacha, I went to the residence of the Mouteselim Mustapha Effendi. He made me sit down, and when, according to etiquette, some drops of coffee had been presented to me, I delivered my firman and letter from the grand Vizier, addressed to the Pacha, the Mouteselim opened them, and said to a chief of the Janissaries who was sitting near him: "So these people too (the Russians) come so far to travel." He promised me letters of recommendation, and a man on horseback when I should set out for the Hauran, and protested that I should have nothing to fear for my safety, which was what I desired.

The delay of the letters of credit which I expected obliged me to prolong my stay at Damascus; I was not sorry for it, being much pleased with my abode in this city. Under the auspices of my Janissary, I obtained leave to see the castle. One of the Arnauts even had the complaisance to be my guide; he took me to the top of the towers, whence there is a view over the whole city. These towers appeared to me very antient, the stones of which they are built are perfectly joined; on the outside the

surface is rough, on the inside smooth. The interior of the castle resembles a little town; there are houses built upon vaults which serve partly as stables and partly as a prison; a great number of them are fallen in. One of the two gates of the castle is walled up. Among the ruins of the antient palace, I was particularly struck with the beauty of a window: it was completely surrounded with a long inscription in golden characters on a blue ground; over it a medallion encloses other inscriptions, there are some in cufic of a very bright red colour. It would have taken me several hours to copy it, and I could not devote so much time to it. In two inscriptions on a tower I observed the names of Alem eddin Sandjar and Melek el Mansour Seifed Dounja Wa'ddin Kalaoun.

I visited all the environs, and rode on horseback round the city: it is surrounded by a moat, the greater part of which is dry, and by a wall, in most places double flanked by round towers very ill-built. Before the gates, and sometimes within, are Turkish tombs; they are by no means so handsome as those at Constantinople, and are too much crowded together.

On the 14th, accompanied by Kaddour, I again proceeded towards the gardens and Sa-

lahieh, and went beyond them as far as the entrance of the narrow valley, into which the several arms of the Barada flow; two rocky mountains rise opposite to one another, and that on the left is called Minschar (the saw), on account of its indented summit; that on the right of the north is called Kabakh (foam), the latter is excavated to open a passage for the waters of the Yezid. At a short distance, we perceive the ruins of an ancient tower, and on a rock two Arabic inscriptions in Cufic characters, but they were placed too high for me to be able to read them. They probably announce that the Yezid, a famous prince of the Omniades, had built this aqueduct, and that the river had been called after his name. The rock in this place is cut perpendicular, and is consequently inaccessible. On the Minschar is a ruined tomb and several other Kotbbehs or towers and cupolas.

Thence we came into a valley filled with fruit-trees and plantations of poplars, which everywhere border the arms of the Barada, and grow with great vigour. The narrow, and very bad road, often passes through the river. The neighbouring mountains are naked, with the exception of some scattered spots covered with grass and bushes; they are a limestone

conglomerate, which farther on, leans sometimes on red ferruginous rock, sometimes on compact limestone, and sometimes on chalk. In this desert, and probably also in the chalk, are found large solid pieces of flint.

At Dumour, situated a little farther beyond the valley, on the northern declivity of the rocks, the Barada divides successively into five arms: one always flows in the valley, the others pass one above the other on the declivity of the rock, over which they have been conducted; the Yezid is the highest, and Dumour is built above it. Below flows the Derani, which, at a short distance from Damascus, in the meadow of Mersch, divides into two branches, the Derani and the Akraban; then comes the Tora, which flows in the valley: the Kounavati and the Baneas have been led over the southern mountain.

After having crossed the Barada by a bridge, Richter passed the night with one of the chiefs of the village of Hamek. The following day he traversed the neighbouring mountains; the vineyards and plantations of figs were not very flourishing. All the villages watered by the Barada are in a very picturesque situation; springs issue here and there from the rocks: sometimes you see tombs hewn in the rock, and

fragments of Greek inscriptions traced upon the stone.

The source of the Fidscheh, situated below the village of the same name, is in a grotto surrounded with the ruins of antient works, which, from the simplicity of their construction, must be of a very remote period. Below these ruins the Fidscheh has a fall of some feet: its water afterwards divides into an infinity of canals: it is extremely limpid, and considered to be very unwholesome. This stream, after having flowed below the poplars, joins the Barada, which issues from another beautiful valley, and is only half the breadth, though its source is much higher up, but its bed is much deeper, and its troubled waters appear to be of a greyish white colour. It is said to be unwholesome, and to be the cause of continual fevers among those who inhabit the banks, till its junction with the Fidscheh, which tempers its fatal effects. The two streams have a very rapid course, and continue to flow in the same bed without mingling their waters, which may be distinguished by their different colours. The inhabitants of this canton pretend that the temperature of the waters is likewise not the same, and that those of the Fidscheh are colder in summer and warmer in winter, than those of

the Barada. In Fidscheh and its environs are the ruins of antient monuments in an indifferent style.

On leaving Damascus, Richter wished to go to the Hauran, and to visit the ruins of Gerazi and Amman. An obstacle, unfortunately too common in these countries, prevented him from executing this project. A war had broken out between the Arabs and the Druses, and a sanguinary battle had just been fought. Being obliged to delay his departure, he learnt that by the intervention of the government, peace had just been concluded between the belligerent parties. He accordingly prepared to set out, but was unable to execute more than a part of his plan.

Furnished with letters of recommendation from the Moutesellim, who also gave him a servant from the castle to accompany him, he took, besides this man, his faithful Kaddour, and departed on the 30th of October. The weather was as fine as during the whole of his stay at Damascus. However there were some symptoms of approaching winter; every three days there was a storm followed by rain, which always burst in the mountains, so that the city was not affected by it, which is generally the case in this country. Thunder and lightning continue

almost without intermission from sun-set to the morning: the days are serene.


In the southern suburbs of Damascus, Richter observed a large number of houses with conical roofs; they are built in this manner for summer habitations, because they are much cooler: like all the rest in this country, they are plastered with clay and very ugly. The ground shews on this side the same conglomerate that Richter noticed on the other, and forms here and there very stony plains, filled with rolled flints between the rocks and gardens. To the gardens succeed plantations of old olives, which shade the fields; they cease at Kaddem. In front of this village is a large building, with a mosque, in which the Pacha resides while the pilgrims assemble in the plain. In summer, the inhabitants of Damascus make parties of pleasure to Kaddem. Beyond it, fertile plains extend to the mountains, or rather to the chain of low hills which branch out from Anti-Lebanon in the north-east, and are lost in the desert; it is the Alsidadamus of the antients, and properly an Anti-Lebanon.

The vast plain of Damascus, lying between the two chains of Mountains, is watered by several streams, over which low, broad bridges have been thrown. Villages are scattered in this

plain; the gardens of Damascus extend far to the south along the foot of Anti-Lebanon. Beyond the first chain of hills begins a broad and stony valley, between bare mountains; a stream shaded by trees runs at the bottom. The limestone and conglomerate pass by degrees into black amphibole. The mountains, which are not covered by forest, are partly cultivated.

Richter passed the night in the village of Kisveh, near which are ruins which appear to be of Arabic construction. The stream which waters this village, and the neighbouring mountains, is called by this name. Our traveller observes that in general the mountains are not designated by a name common to the whole chain. One of the summits of Anti-Lebanon is called Djebel Scham, another Djebel Erbain, Djebel Cheikh, Djebel Katana.

The following day Richter travelled constantly in a plain, covered with black stones, perhaps basalt. Half a league from Kisveh stands the Khan of Ben Noun, which derives its name from a neighbouring village lying towards the north on the left of the road: the pilgrims who go to Mecca stop here: they dress their fish in a large vaulted building which is called Metbakh or the kitchen. From this place there is an agreeable prospect of



Anti-Lebanon. It seems to form only one mountain with the detached chain of hills, by which it is surrounded. Richter's attendants pointed out to him the snow on the Djebel Cheikh which put him in mind that Busching in his geography of Asia, calls Hermon or Pannius, Djebel Tschaldsch, a denomination which might perhaps be founded on the word Taldsch signifying snow. The black hue of the country and its nakedness give it a gloomy aspect: Richter was surprised to see the phenomenon of the Mirage as in Egypt though the weather was not very warm, and the country not sandy.

In a hollow in the plain round a little hill is the village of Gaouaghib three leagues from Kisveh; it is built entirely of black stones plastered over with clay. To the left of the road, at the foot of a naked hill lies a small village; then to the right, and at a short distance from this place is Der el Bokht, a large building, surrounded with a village. Farther on the right are seen the hills at the foot of which is situated Konéitarah, and to the left in the blue distance the mounts of Lodja, inhabited by the Druses. "The country," says Richter, "was very unsafe, the day before the peasants of the Hauran had been pillaged.

At Kisvêh, a Sheik had been robbed of 1,050 piastres. We proceeded on our journey quickening our pace, and in half an hour reached Selaman a village three leagues from Gaouagib; on all sides we see remains of antiquity; the houses of the peasants are built of all kinds of fragments of architecture; the doors and the joists which support the roof are all of stone. There is one large building with galleries, columns, and apartments, half filled with sand. The whole is of black stones; at the extremity of a great reservoir there is a large building adorned with pilasters: the greater part of the ornaments are of the Corinthian order; there are also some of the Ionic."

Richter thinks that the two buildings were formerly temples; the ruins of the second are now used as an oil-mill. A Negro, three Arabs, one of whom is a woman, were each harnessed to a cylinder, formed of the basis of the neighbouring columns; they ran round till they were out of breath, rested a few minutes and then began again. The rain having obliged Richter to stay in this place, Kaddour had great difficulty in preserving him from the importunity of the country people, who without doubt attributed to some suspicious motives his assiduity in copying inscriptions.

Under more favourable circumstances he would have ventured on an excursion to some ruins, which he saw on a mountain near the village of Gniouh; he left them to the right, and the villages of Tebueh, Mhadscheh and Shegra to the left, which he passed rapidly. It took him above three hours to reach Adra or Edra, which occupies, but a small part of the excavation of the rocks, in which the antient town of Edrata was situated. You risk breaking your neck by riding on horseback among these ruins; there is a mixture of Greek architecture and Arabic workmanship; the ruins cover a vast extent of ground. Some columns are still standing. Large flags of stones have inscriptions, part of which is very much defaced; there are some in Cufic characters.

As he could not procure at Adra an escort to Bosra, Richter accompanied Sheik Ahmed to proceed to Schekhmeskin, the residence of Abdourahman the Sheik of all the Hauran, with whom he had become acquainted at Damascus. The supreme command belonged to Sheik Otman, his brother, who was at that time gone with the caravan to Mecca. During the absence of these two chiefs the younger son of Abdourahman acted as governor.

At Gnebeh, half a league from Adra, there

is a deep cistern, the muddy water of which is drunk by a number of Arabs : a league farther on is Schekhmeskin. The young Sheik was engaged with half a dozen Dehlis or horsemen lately recruited, who had been sent from Damascus to carry back corn upon their camels : the Sheik was writing for them orders from the treasury upon the village to which each was to go. They shewed extreme fear, none, even the whole troop, dared to go to Adra. " It was droll," says Richter, " to see them, after prayers in the afternoon, collect together in a corner to deliberate upon their safety, while the Arabs were laughing at them." Most of these Dehlis were Curds of Mesopotamia.

" We could not agree," says Richter, " on the plan of our journey. However I was soon convinced to my great satisfaction of the good will of the people to whom I applied. Sometimes it was proposed that we should go from Schekhmeskin to Bosra with Sheik Ahmed and the Sheik's uncle ; sometimes the young Sheik offered to conduct us himself to Bosra or to Meserib. At all events the Dehlis were ready to accompany us.

" During this debate I was quietly seated near the door writing ; all at once a boot thrown by somebody passed close by my head. Yous-

souf Aga, one of the Dehlis, had complained that the Arabs had neither given him coffee or anything to eat. The expressions he made use of, had offended Sheik Ahmed, who had probably made an answer which had raised the choler of Youssouf to such a degree that he had thrown his boot at Ahmed's head. An Arab immediately ran out to assemble the whole village, and in an instant a crowd, thirsting for vengeance, was collected before the door. My Janissary represented to the Dehli how wrong he had been to proceed to acts of violence towards a Sheik, a traveller, our companion, and endeavoured to restore peace. Ahmed spoke little, but his eyes sparkled with anger and revenge. The young Sheik enraged at the insult offered to his relation, raved like a madman. As for the Curd he laughed. However it was in fact only a misunderstanding, and for this reason my Janissary obliged Youssouf and Ahmed to embrace; but it was evident from their looks that their reconciliation was not sincere.

“ When I attempted to go to sleep after supper, I was hindered by the cries of a half blind Egyptian, who remained in a corner of the room where he was kept to say prayers; he performed this office with a punctuality which very

much incommoded me: first, he chaunted or declaimed a long canticle with the well-known burden of la Hah illa Allah (there is no God, but God) then he repeated some hundred times the words Subhan Allah el Khallah! (God most holy! God creator) constantly lowering his voice to lull Youssouf to sleep. When he perceived that he had not yet succeeded he began again. At the end he produced the desired effect on me also.

“ The following day the Sheik gave me a dreadful account of the life of his two brothers in the desert, but though he painted it as very melancholy it was evident that he envied the liberty and security they enjoyed and that he preferred it to the oppression and arbitrary acts which he had to fear from the government. According to his statement the Annessy, one of the most considerable tribes, are able to raise 100,000 men, but this is evidently exaggerated. He told me that there were formerly 2,366 villages in the Hauran; at present there are not above fifty which are inhabited. The number of the Bedouins increases in proportion as that of the sedentary Arabs diminishes.”

On leaving Schekhmeskin, Richter saw at a distance the village of Djiba rising like a white point, on the road from the Hauran to Saint

Jean d'Acre. The mounts of Adjloun or Gilead extended before him in the south like a blue line. At Tafas, a miserable village, three leagues farther, he saw two buildings of a better era. Half a league from this he came to Meserib which on this side is the extreme point of the Ottoman empire. There is a large castle built of black stone, flanked by half a dozen square towers. It is situated on the edge of a rocky ravine whence issues a stream of limpid water, which a little farther on forms a small lake.

“ In this ravine the soldiers of Taher Aga live under tents; he finds it very difficult with two hundred horsemen to preserve order in this country. I went to pay a visit to this Aga who asked me if I intended to go to Djerra (Geraza). At present hardly two hundred horsemen venture to go that road, consequently I could not ask him to expose himself to the danger, I merely requested an escort to Bosra, and he instantly gave me twelve horsemen. We had scarcely proceeded half a league when a dispute arose between them and ourselves, because they had not clearly understood the orders of their chief; I was obliged to send my Janissary to request him to renew them. A journey in the
“ it is a course of lectures on patience.”

Richter passed the night at Gazaleh ; on the road he saw many villages in ruins. Three heaps of earth attracted his notice at Gazaleh ; he at first took them for ovens, but he afterwards found that they were subterraneous magazines for corn.

The inhabitants complained of being obliged to give to government one half of their crops, which they have great difficulty in defending from the Bedouins. For this reason the farms and villages are surrounded with walls, the ill joined stones of which, leave many openings, which serve for loop holes. The inhabitants place their dwellings, as far as possible, on the heights ; it is seldom that herds of cattle are seen near them.

It is one day's journey from Gazaleh to Bosra. They passed by Elench, Kharbit el Gazaleh, Harek, Rekem, Karak and Djeleb, and saw several other ruined villages which are abandoned either on account of the incursions of the Bedouins, or by the fault of the government.

“ It was not without a lively interest that I had approached Bosra the antient capital of the Hauran (Chauranitis), in which the Kings of Basan reigned as independent princes before the Israelites conquered them, and which

afterwards, under the Roman government preserved its importance till the middle ages. I imagined that the ruins of this city could not be entirely effaced though I did not expect to find the altars of Astarte, under the mass of ruins any more than to distinguish in the present inhabitants of the country the features which might betray their descent from the race of the children of Enoch.

“ At first I passed over a well-built antique bridge, near the town, below which in the winter time, a torrent flows which was now dry. I afterwards beheld with delight a colonnade which rose above the roofs of the houses. My horse proceeded with difficulty through the streets, encumbered with fragments and remains of many ages and nations, where a few inhabitants reside in a kind of holes. The houses are partly antique and partly built of ancient materials; the ruins of the city cover a vast extent of ground. .

“ I rode across the colonnade of a temple and a long bridge, to reach the castle, where I proceeded at random, and not without danger in the dark labyrinth of the gate of the tower. Though I was much fatigued I could not help hastily surveying the edifice in which I at first saw nothing that struck my attention ; but

having passed under a lofty vault to examine the interior, I found myself, to my great astonishment, in the area of an immense Roman theatre, which was very easy to be distinguished, though it was partly disfigured by houses, and the rows of seats were concealed by the walls of the fortress.

“This country is very rarely visited by Franks. The Sheik welcomed me with much kindness: in general I have found the Arabs of the Hauran to be very hospitable, and they are a race of very fine men.”

The 4th of November, the day after my arrival, I returned to the castle, which is to the south west of the town; its centre occupies the area of the theatre, covered with the houses of country people, as I have before observed. The back of the stage consists of a wall, which has five plane surfaces, and four half rounded. The central plane surface has a niche, round at the top and two others in the form of parallelograms, resembling windows; the two other plane surfaces going from the centre to the extremities have each only one niche rounded at the top; each of the two rounded surfaces which succeed, has a square niche, and each of the two last plane surfaces has one round at the top. The floor which separated this upper

story from the ground floor has fallen down. The niches, except the three in the centre correspond with others in the ground floor. The length of this wall in a straight line is sixty-six feet, the depth of the stage is twelve feet. In both stories, doors on each side of the proscenium lead to a space, enclosed between a wall perpendicular to the back of the stage, and the exterior walls, to apartments which formed an upper story of which doors and walls are still to be seen on the southern side.

In the front of the door of the proscenium a wall parallel to the back of the stage has in its lower part a round niche between two angular ones, and, besides including those at the corners, eight columns of the Tuscan order half in the wall. This wall is twenty three feet long; thus the diameter of the area or orchestra is a hundred and twelve feet. I could not discover whether this space formed a semi-circle; if it was one, its semi-diameter was fifty feet. The seats which surround it are adorned with backs of the Tuscan order, and the pilasters of the corner have the Acanthus leaf, as in the Corinthian order; the doors of the Vomitoria have a Tuscan architrave.

At present the steps are concealed by the walls of the fort and the houses that cover

them. There were probably seventeen staircases, leading to the seats, and sixteen doors leading to the Vomitoria. From the upper part of the staircase there was an entrance to a gallery which went all round the building, ornamented with Tuscan columns; four are still standing near the wall, and several in the centre. The shaft is ten feet in height. Thirty-three outward doors closed the issues of as many subterraneous passages; they are almost entirely choaked up with rubbish, and so concealed by the buildings that very little is seen of them: the people of the country pretend that they were reservoirs.

The enormous towers of the fortress surround the theatre: there are three on the straight side, and six or seven on the circular; they partly adjoin the antient edifice, and are partly furnished above with parapets and vaults, between which are battlements, which are not however intended for artillery. On the south is the gate, leading to a stone bridge over a dry ditch. On the gate, as well as on two other towers to the east, are Arabic inscriptions; they were placed too high for me to read them. The Sheik told me that they contained the name of the celebrated Melek el Adel. In four places there are inscriptions in Arabic, Greek, and Latin; the

greater part much defaced. I copied some of the latter; my trouble was not rewarded as I expected; they mention Justinian and Theodora, or express the gratitude of the Roman legions to their commanders, or vainly endeavour to eternize the memory of persons long forgotten.

This place has another ruin, which the inhabitants call Serir Beat el Yaoudi (the throne of the Jewish princesses): this monument is so ruined and surrounded by Arab houses that I could not make out the plan of it. The corner of the wall of a building three stories high, which within and without is surrounded with niches, attests the original grandeur of this edifice. It seems that at this point a long row of columns of the Roman order began; only two remain standing, at a very great distance from each other. When I was near these columns I perceived four others of the same order, arranged not parallel but obliquely: they were of better proportions than the others. To what monument did these ruins belong? The singular name, by which they are designated, will not furnish any clue to it, nor is any more light to be derived from fragments of Greek inscriptions in their neighbourhood.

I took advantage of the curiosity which had

attracted several Arabs round me to take some of them for guides. They conducted me to the remains of a Christian church in very good preservation; the outside is of a square form, and the interior a rotunda, the corners are round chapels; two have been built later than the others, for in the middle a kind of vault has been raised which rests upon antique fragments and remains of columns of all the orders promiscuously mixed together. The church has six doors, three at each end, and the pavement appears to be full of Christian sepulchres.

At a small distance I found the remains of another more modern church; two Ionic columns are let into the outer walls at the angles; its form is that of a parallelogram; its high windows and pointed roof betray a European origin. There is nothing on which to build a conjecture, respecting the period to which it belongs; the inhabitants do not know, why they call it El Deir (the Monastery). May not this city have been in the hands of the European Crusaders?

It is still evident that the extent and splendor of Bosra corresponded with its title of the capital of Arabia. Its theatre was not within the walls; a street leads in a right line from this building through a gate to the great street, which crossed

the city from west to east. This gate has two lateral openings; it is ornamented with a couple of Corinthian pilasters with Acanthus leaves.

The western gate, which is the most distant from the castle, is of the Tuscan order, and very simple; it is an arcade, adorned with niches, resting on two massy towers; shapeless ruins entirely surround it.

In later times a suburb has been built before this gate, which, with the exception of two towers, is already in ruins. The great street leads from thence, first to the door of the theatre, then to the columns, which perhaps were in the middle of the city, while the theatre was on the outside. The eastern gate, which is equally plain, leaves us in doubt whether it ever was finished, for there is neither column nor architrave of any known order. It indicates the road to the remains of a great and magnificent edifice, which are so concealed by modern houses that no precise idea of the whole can be formed.

We can still distinguish a portal of large dimensions, adorned with garlands extremely rich and beautiful, two columns of the Roman order exactly of the same proportion as those I have already mentioned; they are on an oblique line, with the remains of a lofty arcade opposite;

towards the south there is a large building partly inhabited, which, being distributed into several court-yards and several stories high, seems to have been a palace. No character of architecture can be distinguished; we perceive Roman workmanship, and round the court-yard Arab vaults.

At the southern extremity of the city is an immense reservoir, entirely enclosed with walls, and defended by towers, which are now in ruins; near it are mosques of Arab architecture, and very well built; each side of the square may be about 225 paces long.

I was astonished at the quantity of the ruins of Ionic columns which I saw in the narrow and crooked streets of Bosra; they support the vaults of khans and mosques, which have inscriptions in Cufic characters, as old as the time of the Ayoubites. There are still bazaars, though now deserted. Only some few human figures are seen gliding like phantoms amidst the masses of stone, blackened by time. As there was nothing to keep me at Bosra, I prepared to visit Sarkhad, a castle which I had perceived on an eminence about seven leagues distant: nobody would consent to conduct, or accompany me thither.

From Bosra you also see a mountain covered



with forts : the Druses, whose capital is Leveida, have built a town of wood upon the ruins of one that was of stone. This woody canton presents a singular contrast to the Hauran, where, with the exception of some miserable fig-trees, which vegetate amidst the stones, the eye does not behold a single tree ; and, on account of the season, not even a blade of green grass. Yet the soil, which is a black earth, is very fertile, and the inhabitants seem to enjoy a degree of comfort ; they regaled me very well. I was particularly pleased with a dish composed of dates and sour milk.

On the 3d of November, Richter quitted Bosra, which was known in antiquity by the name of Bostra, and of Karnaim Astaroth. He wished very much to return to Damascus by a different road, but could not persuade his attendants. On the 7th, arrived at Damascus, where he found a letter from Lady Hester Stanhope. This lady having heard that he was dangerously ill, had the kindness to offer him her physician.

“ A monk of the convent where I lodged,” says Richter, “ conducted me to the gate of St. Paul, which the Mussulmen call the gate of the east. It is antique, and consists of an arcade supported by two massy pillars. A tower with

a cross vault has since been built there. From the top of this building we perceived great heaps of ruins, attesting the destruction caused by an earthquake, and farther on, the window of another tower, by which it is said St. Paul was let down ; but the style of the whole of this building indicates the time of the Crusades, besides an Arabic inscription very much decayed, is not favourable to the pretended antiquity of this building; the event must therefore have passed somewhere else.

I also visited the cemetery of the Christians. They shew in the vicinity, the remains of an antient road formed of rolled flints laid in mortar. The action of the water has probably excavated below it an arched opening in the calcareous mass ; this they assign as the scene of the vision by which St. Paul lost his sight. Near the gate by which we returned, are the tombs of three monks, who were tied to the tails of as many horses at Jerusalem and dragged to this place, where they were put to death. Now the Mussulmen revere them as saints."

VISIT TO JERUSALEM,

By F. W. SIEBER, in 1818.

I left Cairo on the 17th of May for Damietta, where I intended to embark for Palestine ; strong north winds prevailing, we were detained four weeks before a ship could venture to put to sea. On the 22d of June I embarked in a vessel belonging to the Aga of Jaffa, at which place we arrived without accident, on the evening of the following day.

The Franciscans no longer lodge pilgrims in their convent at Jaffa : the few Europeans, chiefly English, are received by the agents of their government. There are no inns here, and the customs of the country do not allow you to go to private houses, where you are not known, at least at the first. Mr. Francis Damiani, the Austrian consular agent, having perceived European hats among the crowd of Turks, was ready at the gate to welcome us, and kindly received us in his house. Here I again met with the Chevalier Frediani, with whom I had become acquainted in Upper Egypt ; and after visiting the beautiful and fertile gardens of



W. G. W. del

PASSAGE of the RIVER IRON.

Printed by H. H. H. H.

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Jaffa, we resolved to ride along the sea-coast to Ascalon.

We traversed the land of the Philistines almost to Gaza, on the frontier of Egypt; and after a journey of 11 hours, arrived in the evening at Gdora near Ascalon. This long tract of low land, from 10 to 15 miles broad, bounded towards the east by the continuous chain of the mountains of Judea, and to the west by the sea coast, is very fertile, and well cultivated. The inhabitants, descendants though not unmixed, of the antient Philistines, chiefly follow agriculture: their behaviour is friendly, and their countenances agreeable; they are distinguished also for their honesty, and willingness to oblige.

We had a recommendation from the governor of Jaffa, and were perfectly well received. Ascalon, once so important and celebrated, is now a half-deserted place, where cabbages are planted, cotton cultivated; &c. It lies in a small hollow; and the walls and towers, which are still in part standing, inclose it like a garland on the surrounding hills. The beating of the waves for these thousand years past has considerably undermined the rocks on the shore, and the soft sand-stone falls to pieces. Among the innumerable fragments of walls, pillars, and heaps of rubbish, Lady Stanhope has employed work-

men to dig, but the result has by no means answered her expectations. We returned by the same way to Jaffa. The country was enamelled with flowers. Rare plants, never yet described by any traveller, seemed to invite me to gather them. The frequent storms and high winds blowing from the coast, have heaped up great hills of sand, formed of the *debris* of the sand-stone, undermined by the waves. Every year the sand advances farther towards the east; it has covered and made desolate the most fertile parts of the country, and you have to pass over sand-hills for half a league to reach the coast. These sandy tracts are however adorned with the rarest plants, of which I found a considerable number even in the beginning of July. In some parts of these sands I saw bones and skulls, which I was told were those of the French soldiers, who, on their flight from Acre to Egypt, here perished miserably, of the plague, want, and their wounds.

A great many people are seen in the streets whose noses and ears have been cut off. The infamous Djezzar, Pacha of Acre, the greatest despot and most sanguinary tyrant of the last century, whose cruelties even now fill the rudest Turks and Arabs with horror and disgust, took delight in acting the executioner, and cutting

off the ears and noses of innocent persons, without any reason, or at the most because their physiognomy displeased him, and in mutilating them in various ways. A traveller requires various and concurring testimonies of credible persons, before he can bring himself to believe even the half of the most revolting cruelties committed by a monster in human shape. It may be reasonably doubted whether any writer would give his pen to record the particulars of all his incomprehensible acts of wickedness, perpetrated without any motives of revenge or retaliation, and with the greatest composure of mind. This tyrant exercised his ferocity chiefly against those of his own religion; not so much against the Greeks and Maronites: the Franks he almost wholly spared, partly through fear, partly through commercial speculation. It appears strange that this tyrant died peaceably and calmly in his bed.

The Latin convent of Jaffa, like the others in Palestine, is inhabited by Franciscans of all nations. There are two predominant parties in it; the Spanish, which is the most considerable, and the Italian, with which the few individuals of other nations join. It has at the most from twelve to sixteen priests and lay-brethren. They do not willingly receive any body, only at times

English travellers. All goods, however, which arrive for the other monasteries, they readily receive and forward to their destination; and cases marked with the quintuple cross, their arms, are not opened by any public officer.

I returned with the Chevalier Frediani from an interesting excursion in the environs of Jaffa. At the harbour-gate, we found Mr. Damiani engaged in a violent altercation with an Arab of distinction, who had a numerous retinue. Frediani immediately knew him to be Abu-Gosch, the Bedouin prince of the mountains of Judæ, whose residence at Jeremias, it is necessary to pass on the way to Jerusalem. He appeared to be embarrassed, and to be making excuses, while Damiani seemed to be reproaching him. They soon parted. The case was interesting. Mr. Damiani had obtained a free passport from the Aga of Jaffa for a pilgrim under Russian protection, by virtue of which he could travel to Jerusalem in perfect security, and without paying any tribute; but when he came into the mountain, the people of Abu Gosch disregarded the passport, and made the pilgrim pay like the rest. He wrote from Jerusalem to inform Damiani, who immediately sent a messenger to Abu Gosch, and called him to account. The prince, though powerful, and having 4,000 armed

men at his disposal, was obliged to come in person to Jaffa to apologize, and even to beg Damiani not to speak of the affair to the governor; which he would not promise, till after long and humble intreaties.

He had good reason to be afraid. His father and predecessor had not respected such a passport given by the governor of Jaffa to a traveller of distinction; he had even torn it in pieces and thrown it on the ground. The Turkish governor, though extremely incensed, dissembled for half a year; and when the mountain-prince thought himself perfectly safe, he was invited to an entertainment. Fearing no evil, he came to Jaffa, and dined in the most friendly manner with the Aga; but as he was going down the steps after dinner, his head was cut off. The Aga very coolly ordered the cloak of the prince to be brought to him, with which he invested his son, telling him that he was henceforth to be ruler in his father's stead; but that he was to respect the commands of the Porte and its officers. Mr. Damiani very obligingly said to me, "I am glad that this affair with Abu Gosch has happened before your departure; now I am sure no inconvenience will happen to you." I also received by his means a free admission to the church of

the fury of the Mahometan country people. At Rama they had dispersed, and only one was observed by the Arabs who hovered round the French army, as he sprang from the terrace into the house of a Turk, who was employed by the convent to carry messages and bring provisions. The man received him, with a promise to defend him, and his wife to conceal him, when a savage troop loudly demanded admission. The monk was in the greatest danger; but the woman's presence of mind over-ruled all the difficulties started by the husband, who was justly alarmed for his own safety. She shut the monk in a receptacle, and placed herself before it when the Arabs broke in. No one ventured to touch her, they begged her to go away, parleyed with her, and gave her fair words; but in vain. When they threatened her, she asked the Arabs which of them would be the first to hinder her from performing the duties of hospitality, or venture to lay hands on a woman? The ruffians in their fury threatened to kill her husband, but this did not move her; and when they actually carried their threat into execution, she was still resolute, saying, "You cannot attain your object, unless you kill me!" These barbarians having in some degree appeased their fury, retired, and the monk was indebted to the woman for his life.

It is surely impossible to carry the exercise of hospitality farther than this woman.

We had scarcely arrived in sight of the handsome residence of Prince Abu Gosch, when a troop of Arabs surrounded us, and demanded the usual tribute ; but, on the production of our passport, and being told that the Prince (who was absent) had spoken to Mr. Damiani on the subject some days before, they let us pass without paying.

It was on Friday, July 3, 1818, at one o'clock in the afternoon, that we arrived at the Bethlehem gate of Jerusalem. We found it shut. I was surprized at this, not having before noticed it in other Turkish towns. The Turks, it seems, have a generally received prophecy, that the Christians, on some Friday, when the Mussulmen are assembled in their mosques at noon, will attack them, and massacre them all. For this reason, the Mahometans, when their towns have no walls and gates, shut themselves up in their mosques. We had therefore to wait till prayers were over, on which the gate was opened, and we entered the city.

We soon reached the Franciscan convent, and, highly rejoiced at the friendly reception given us, we entered the apartment which the obliging lay-brother shewed us. Soon after, we were

told that a priest, also a native of Bohemia, had arrived here some months before, and they hastened to introduce him. He was a venerable old man, whose eyes sparkled with joy when we returned his salute in our native language. It turned out that he was from Neuhaus, and a near relation of my attendant Francis Kohaut. The room assigned to me and my two attendants, was that in which Sir Sidney Smith lodged, whose name, written with a diamond on a pane of glass, was shewn to us, with the assurance that he had it written himself.

Out of the convent is a house for pilgrims, in which the oriental pilgrims and women are received. The hospitality of the priests and brethren is admirable. Every Catholic who comes here is boarded for three days gratis ; and they would think it a mark of disrespect if any one looked for a lodging out of the convent. One may even stop forty days with them, which time is allowed to European pilgrims, who, however, now seldom come hither. There is no obligation to pay for what you have had ; but if you will, on your departure, distribute 12 or 18 dollars among the brethren, who are mostly artisans, it is doing them a real kindness I could not resolve immediately to

visit the holy sepulchre, though it was opened the following day; I wished to become more composed, as my feelings had been much excited.

In order to form a correct idea of the city, and every thing remarkable in it, I first of all took a cursory view of them. By this means I acquired a general notion of the city, which was what I wanted. I then walked round the walls, then ascended some hills, and laid down my plan for my intended survey, and on the third day went to Bethlehem, where I examined all the remarkable places connected with sacred history.

On the 8th of July I entered the church of the Holy Sepulchre. A feeling of sacred awe thrilled through all my limbs, my head sank, my knees trembled. On the left you come under the great dome, under which, in the centre, stands the chapel that contains the sepulchre of our Saviour. First you enter the chapel, where they show the stone on which the angel was sitting, when the women visited the sepulchre after the resurrection. You must stoop to enter the second chamber, which can scarcely hold three persons, and in which is the Holy Sepulchre. It is covered over with white marble, $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, 3 broad, $2\frac{1}{2}$ high, and fills

half the chapel, which is constantly lighted with 48 lamps, as the day-light never enters. The sepulchre itself is not to be seen, being covered with this white marble. The chapel is handsomely decorated externally; on the top is a large silver cross; and above the entrance a fine picture of the resurrection: the name of the artist is unfortunately not known. Divine service is performed by four different religious parties, in which they succeed each other every hour. These four parties are the Latins, the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Copts, each of which has a different form of worship. At two o'clock in the morning the Latins begin, and are followed by the others in succession; when they have all done, the Latins recommence, and so on, till vespers conclude the day.

The sound of the organ is really sublime: and amidst the columns and chapels, the effect being increased by the repeated echo, is very great. Unfortunately the organ is not complete; for the Greeks, who have an aversion to this instrument, though it is a Byzantine invention, have forcibly taken away from the poor Latins a set of pipes, because, as they said, they made too much noise in the church, and disturbed them, though each party, as I have said, has its own hours for performing divine service. The

Franciscans bear all this ill treatment with great patience.

A number of sick persons who had applied to me, and had received more or less comfort and relief (for in this sacred place I had resolved, as far as lay in my power, to send nobody away unsatisfied) appeared to have procured for me an extraordinary degree of confidence. Even the Ros-el-Sheriffi, the most powerful after the Mufti, and the head of the Mahometans wearing a green fillet, who are descendants of Fatima, Mahomet's daughter, came to the convent, and asked my advice for an inflammation in his eyes, which he had had for 14 months. Other Turks of distinction consulted me; this procured me an opportunity of entering their houses, and seeing their mode of life. I acquired the favour of several of them, and it was necessary for me that the Turkish populace should see that I visited the houses of their great men, that I might meet with fewer obstacles to the execution of my project, which was now advancing to maturity, I mean that of taking a plan of the city. I now began my measurements, and while I was gathering plants, went on with my survey. On the 24th of July, in the morning, I went out of the Bethlehem gate, and ascended the Hill of Evil

Counsel, from which I enjoyed a fine view of the city.

I descended on the south side, towards the valley of Gibinnon, found some rare plants, and was stopping with my companion at an interesting spot, when we saw, at a distance, a young Arab coming towards us with a gun in his hand, the lock of which he was carefully examining. My companion ran away as fast as he could, but the Arab overtook me. He cocked his piece, and presented it at me, and seemed to take pleasure in my alarm. He was young, and mad enough: in a moment all would have been over with me. In this critical situation, I had the presence of mind to put my hand into my pocket, and take out a handful of 60 to 70 Paras, which I threw at his feet. The sight of the bright silver coin, which happened to be quite new, changed his purpose; he dropped his hand, his countenance changed, and in a mild tone he asked for another dollar, which I threw down in the same coin, and while he was picking up the money I escaped.

I mentioned this adventure to the procurator of the convent, a Spaniard, and a very sensible man. He advised me not to apply to the governor, because his violence would do mischief, and incense against me the country people of

the village of Siloah, to which my highwayman probably belonged. He thought it would be the best to apply to the Chasnadar, or private secretary, in whose prudence he had great confidence, assuring me that he was the only person who could procure me satisfaction. My interpreter accompanied me to him, and found him at home. The interpreter explained the object of my visit, and added, that on my arrival, I had applied to the governor of Jerusalem to know whether I needed a soldier to attend me or not, and that he had replied, that I was perfectly safe in his province to the distance of ten leagues round, and did not want any guard: but I had just been in danger of my life under the very walls of Jerusalem. This had its effect. My interpreter conversed with him on the best means of learning the name of the robber, and still more of laying hold of him. There seemed little doubt that he was a youth from the village of Siloah, and the object of the crafty Chasnadar was to ascertain this, and to get him into his power. All at once he opened the window, knocked out his pipe, and ordered three horses to be brought. When I perceived that I was to accompany him in my European dress, I naturally expressed an apprehension that the robber would fly as soon as he saw me

in his company ; but the Chasnadar, to my no small surprise, said, that unless I were present, he did not know how he should get hold of the culprit. My curiosity was excited ; but I of course made no further objection, and observed that the eyes of the interpreter sparkled with joy at the success of his plan.

We mounted our horses, came to Siloah, passed St. Mary's well, and at the tree before the monument of Isaiah saw some country people from Siloah, whom the Chasnadar saluted as he rode past them. Turning round the hill, the interpreter asked me to point out the place where the affair happened, and exclaimed, " This is the Aeldama, the little field which the high priest and the Levites bought, with the 30 pieces of silver thrown down by Judas, and which is destined for the burying ground of strangers who die in Jerusalem." The coincidence of these extraordinary circumstances affected me ; the Turk himself seemed not to be unmoved by it. We immediately turned, alighted at the monument of Isaiah, and the Chasnadar addressed some country people. He alledged, that this morning I had met in my walk with a young man of Siloah, who had asked me for a present ; and that in the hurry I had given among the Paras a gold ring, which,

being a family piece, I desired to have it back, and would willingly pay its value. The stratagem succeeded ; the peasants did not see the object, and lost themselves in endless conjectures who it might be. At length the Chasnadar incidentally mentioned the spot, more precisely described the culprit, and last of all remarked that he had a gun. The peasants now all agreed who he was, and mentioned his name.

Hereupon the Chasnadar sent one of them to look for him, and bring him to us ; but he returned without executing his orders. "He shall appear immediately," exclaimed the Chasnadar, "he has doubtless sold the ring, or will not give it up.. He shall come immediately, and say what he has done with it." On this second summons, the young man, who probably expected no harm, came back to us with the peasant. But when he saw the Chasnadar, and recognized me, he fell on his knees, begged for mercy, and vowed that his intention had merely been to frighten me, and by no means to kill me. Nevertheless he was arrested, and carried to prison, and the Siloah peasants, who would certainly have denied all knowledge of him, and in general live independent under their prince, and defy the commands of the Turks,

were now not a little embarrassed. Three days after this the Dragoman of the convent requested me to ask the Chasnadar to release the young man, otherwise he would remain in prison. That no dispute might arise, which might prove injurious to the convent after I was gone, I was obliged to exercise truly Christian self-denial, and to request indulgence for him who had not had the best intentions towards me.

This event shews how ready the Turkish government is to afford to Europeans all the protection to which they are entitled, both by the general agreement and the rights of hospitality.

I continued to visit the remarkable places in and out of the city, and soon went again to Siloah, without shewing any fear. The peasants saluted me, and brought me sick persons to cure ; good advice, however, is easily given, and often satisfies such people better than physic, which affords but little relief, and tastes bitter.

Having, at length, completed my survey of the city, and noted all the remarkable, and especially the genuine remains of antiquity, I resolved, last of all, to measure the church of the Holy Sepulchre. I remained in it three days and two nights ; the damp cold air between these marble walls, the gloom of the whole edifice, the hateful

looks of the Greeks, had such an effect on me, that exhausted as I was, by the continued great bodily exertion, I was obliged to seek the open air.

A short time before my departure, I heard of a new act of violence of the Greek clergy, who seized on a place of worship belonging to the Latins, drove out the officers of the church with stones, and threatened with weapons the priest who was going to mass. Their arrogance increases with their revenues, and becomes more oppressive to the Franciscans in proportion as theirs decrease. The violence and ill usage which the Franciscans suffered during my stay filled me with indignation, and I confess that the Turks live in Jerusalem in greater harmony with the Jews than the Greeks among themselves, and with their clergy. I have carefully observed whether the brethren and priests of the Latin convent gave cause for those disputes, or provoked the Greeks by intrigues, or plots; but I have seen them patiently endure, and learned to esteem them, for their truly religious mild conduct, more than I had previously done. I was told that when Greek pilgrims come to Jerusalem, they salute our monks in a very friendly manner the first day; but on the second and third, their friendship is changed into

hatred. I will here relate an affair, which gives a striking proof of the unhappy discord that prevails here.

Lord Belmore, with his family and a numerous suite of servants, undertook a tour through the whole Levant. He penetrated to Nubia. On his return from Nubia down the Nile, my little bark met in 1818, two large ships belonging to him, near Syene. Lord Belmore then went by way of Cairo and Damietta, to Palestine and Syria, where he arrived in April. Mr. Banks had also just arrived in Jerusalem from Arabia Petræa, where he had made very important discoveries.

The solemnities of Easter were terminated, on which they prepared to depart, but protracted their stay till May; for the multitude of Greek pilgrims, which often amounted to 4000, did not diminish so quickly as usual, which was the more remarkable, as there was nothing to prevent their departure.

The Greek clergy, inexhaustible in their contrivances to annoy and oppress the Latins, which they continually find means to repeat, by bribing the Muteselim and the Muftis and Cadis, had, for the purpose of ill using the priests of the convent, through the means of the populace, with impunity, chosen the 2d of May, the eve

of the festival of the Invention of the Cross, when all the Franciscans are assembled at their devotions in the subterraneous chapel of the Invention of the Cross.

Contrary to the agreement, the church of the Holy Sepulchre was filled with hired Greek pilgrims, who had sticks, clubs, and even arms concealed in the folds of their garments. Scarcely had the Latins commenced the service, when the furious crew met in the cloisters of the church the senior priest, eighty-two years of age, who was quite superannuated. They fell upon him in the most furious manner, beat and maltreated him, dragged him out, and cast him, half dead, before the entrance of the church. The shock caused by this ill usage, took away his senses, and I saw him, with his wounds scarcely healed, out of his mind, in an apartment of the convent.

Lord Belmore and Mr. Banks being Protestants, had remained in the convent, when a report was spread that the ecclesiastics of the convent, as well as the lay-brethren, and most of the Catholics, and all the interpreters of the convent, were shut up in the subterraneous chapel, and as it were, besieged. Some good-natured Turks were just bringing the poor old man to the convent. The two Englishmen

were requested to interfere, which they were ready to do.

With their dragomans, they immediately proceeded to the house of the governor, and without waiting to be announced, entered his room. It was to be expected, that men of their consequence would speak with requisite energy. Every body was astonished, when they plainly told the Muteselim to his face, that he was chiefly to blame for all the confusion, and threatened him, if he did not immediately send the whole Turkish force to release the distressed Franciscans, with worse things than he had himself plotted. Without waiting for the commands of the Muteselim, they ordered the chief of the Albanians to repair to the spot, and he happily arrived in time to deliver the priests out of the hands of their enemies. The Greeks had just attempted a grand attack, through the small door, which they broke open, when the Catholics, in their own necessary defence, were arming themselves with candlesticks and footstools. The Janissary of the convent, who had only a stick, was drawn away by the crowd, the two dragomans had their castans torn, without suffering any other injury, but all the others were more or less maltreated.

In this affray, which was becoming more and

more dangerous, Lord Belmore and Mr. Banks arrived just in time, sword in hand, and followed by a troop of resolute Albanians, drove the 700 Greek pilgrims out of the church, delivered the Latins, who were in the most dreadful alarm, and carried them in triumph to the convent. This profanation of the church of the Holy Sepulchre, by the turbulent and quarrelsome Greeks, is not the first. That the Latins were innocent, is evident, from their having no arms. Scarcely had the Pacha of Damascus been informed of the arbitrary proceedings of the Muteselim and the Greeks, who had used bribery, when he immediately removed the first from his office, and condemned the Greek clergy to a fine, which was brought him in silver, on three camels. The Procurator of the convent received from the Pacha, as an indemnity, a present of an Arabian horse, richly caparisoned, and his dragoman a caftan of the finest Persian manufacture. Thus, by the resolution of two Protestants, hundreds of Catholics were relieved from a situation of imminent danger.

Wednesday, 12th of August, was the day for my really painful taking leave of Jerusalem. Mrs. Belzoni, whom we found here, on our arrival, left it a week before. She had not been fortunate in viewing the temple of Solomon.

The mosque was just then under repair, and as many Christians were employed as necessary; though any other Christians, not employed to work, would doubtless have forfeited his life by entering the mosque, which stands on the site of the Temple of Solomon. I was almost resolved to hire myself for some days as a bricklayer, (a character which I probably could have acted the best), and so to see the interior. But my numerous visits as a physician, which occupied my mornings in the houses of the great, the general knowledge of my person, rendered all pretexts and disguises impossible. Mr. Banks was more enterprising and fortunate than Mrs. Belzoni and I. After he had seen Jerusalem in April, in his European dress; among the innumerable crowds of pilgrims, he rode round the Dead Sea (an extraordinary favour which was granted him), remained for a time in Galilee and Nazareth, and returned by way of Jaffa to Rama, where he waited for the moment to execute his plan. His attendant, who had formerly been in the French service, a Mameluke, whom he had brought with him from Cairo, and was perfectly master of the language, served him as interpreter in his soldier's dress. He himself chose the costume of an Albanian soldier, who speaks only the Arnaut language, but neither Turkish,

Arabic, nor Greek. They arrived at Jerusalem before day-break, went round the city, and entered by Saint Stephen's Gate, and through the back gate, into the enclosure of the Temple. The artifice succeeded, they viewed all the curiosities of Solomon's Temple, which they were shown by a poor Dervish; and returned unnoticed through the crowd of Turks into the convent, just as I was preparing to depart.

With a feeling of regret I took leave of the walls of Jerusalem, in which one would wish permanently to reside, if only a degree of tranquillity, suitable to this holy place, and a conciliation between the contending parties, could be expected.

A droll occurrence gave me the pleasure of preventing a misfortune, which would have caused a great sensation, and produced many disagreeable consequences.

An English clergyman came to Jerusalem, and visited all the scenes of the Passion; he demanded an interpreter, but was an hypochondriac, so that no person in the convent could please him. At length, all the Cicerones had been tried, without being able to give satisfaction. A young Carinthian, whom I had brought from Cairo, who spoke eight languages well, and six others tolerably, became indispensable to him.

Perfectly acquainted with every spot, he acted as Cicerone, and was the clergyman's inseparable companion. Because I had procured myself a complete Bethlehemite dress, the good man took it into his head to get one like it. He applied to me to purchase it for him, which I agreed to do. Not being a good walker, he determined to ride, and to buy what was necessary in the bazaar. In vain we represented to him that this was impracticable, and in the narrow streets, and still more so in the market, could not, by any means, be done. As a horse would not be manageable among the crowd, an ass was procured, which John, the Carinthian, led by a halter to the market place.

To see how this most ridiculous scene would end, I hastened before, very fortunately dressed in the Mahometan costume, and seated myself cross-legged, with a large pipe, next to a well-known merchant, opposite the entrance of the bazaar, where the crowd was the greatest.

John, like a second Sancho, came along with his Don Quixotte, riding an ass, instead of a Rozinante. Unfortunately a lame Iman, whom they did not see, came in their way, and they upset him. Enraged at the accident, which his lameness made him feel still more, because it both pained him, and exposed him to the laugh-

ter of the crowd, the Iman got up, and with his crutch, aimed a blow at the clergyman ; John stood pale with terror, holding in one hand the bridle, and a stick in the other. A crowd of people, and several Albanian soldiers, had collected, when the clergyman unluckily forgot himself, snatched the stick from the hand of his attendant, and advanced to strike the Iman.

I had not anticipated such a finale to this ludicrous scene. It was absolutely necessary to prevent the catastrophe ; a Turkish priest to be threatened with a stick by an infidel—and struck !—Time was precious, and the life of two inconsiderate persons hung by a slender thread. As no person attempted to check the clergyman in his fury, the Albanians already put their hands to their sabres. I therefore darted forward, threw down the clergyman without much hesitation, took away the stick, laid it over the shoulders of the servant, as a satisfaction to the angry Turk, broke it, and threw the pieces after them, and pushed them out of the bazaar.


Though the crowd increased, and more Albanians came up, yet the multitude were satisfied at the issue, and they merely related the story to each other. Every one added: “ had the Iman been struck by the Frank, both would have lost their life !”

The Arnauts are a rude people, and the Mahometans in Jerusalem fanatic. It was fortunate for them and for me, that I was dressed in the Turkish costume, to make a better appearance when visiting the houses of the great, whom I attended in the capacity of physician. At the first moment I was taken for a Mahometan, and as such I ventured to come forward; had I been in the European dress, I should not have dared to interfere. If they had then suffered for their temerity, other Franks who were near, including myself, would have been next attacked, and the convent and the Europeans in general, would have been liable to great inconvenience and injury. Upon the whole, the Mahometans are by no means malicious, though, like all unpolished people, furious, when provoked, and eager to revenge themselves upon the spot.

Favoured by my oriental dress, I had the uncommon good fortune of being invited to the feast of Ramadan. The chief of the Emirs, Ras el Scheriffi, or as he is called in the convent, Capo Verde, grateful for my having relieved the disorder in his eyes, seemed willing to do me honour, by asking me to supper. The company assembled towards sun-set, in a saloon hung with rich tapestry. Cushions were placed round

the rooms, in the centre of which stood two round tables, entirely covered with dishes. Preserves, roast meats, and honeycomb, were arranged on the one, and on the other, confectionary and fruits. The first table was twice covered: there were in all sixty dishes which I counted out of ennui, while the rest of the company were anxiously looking at their contents. The dishes on the first table, twenty eight in number, looked like stew dishes with a deep edge, the contents being at the bottom, so that three tiers of dishes were placed above one another, in the form of a pyramid.

At last we sat down, because they said that the Muezin would soon appear on the minaret. The guests held bread and spoons ready in their hands, and on the first cry of the Muezim they all fell to, with such eagerness, that the table was as it were besieged in a moment. Each selected a dish which he kept to himself till it was quite finished. He then handed the empty dish to the servant, and attacked the one below it. Thus they proceeded till the whole pyramid was demolished, and the empty plateau carried away. Then came the second plateau with twenty-two dishes, which soon shared the fate of the preceding. They then rose, and immediately sat down again to the dessert, which consisted of sixteen



dishes, among which I was particularly pleased with the melons. For not to give any offence, as they seemed willing to consider me as a genuine mussulman, on account of my dress, and particularly my long beard, I did not venture to deviate in any respect from their manner and appeared to be the most eager. The dessert was soon dispatched, after which coffee and tobacco were brought to promote digestion. At length they perceived that exercise would be the best, and the company separated.

The plan of Jerusalem which the author speaks of, in the preceding pages, was happily accomplished by him, notwithstanding the numerous obstacles in the way of such an undertaking, and he has published it on a large scale, viz. two feet from north to south, and 16 inches from east to west. In the course of his observations, he goes into great detail to prove the possibility of ascertaining the actual site of many places mentioned in the New Testament, and concludes in the following terms. "Among the undisputed points in Jerusalem, which must be assumed as the foundation of all our investigations, are the mount of Olives, Mounts Sion, Moria, Acra, Bezetha, and mount Gibon: the brook of Cedron and Gihon, the wells Rogel, Siloah,

and Nehemiah: the pool of Bethesda, the upper and lower pool of Gihon, that of Mount Calvary, &c: the walls of the city, the gates of Damascus, of St. Stephen, of Judgment, the golden gate, the place of skulls, the Holy Sepulchre, the temple of Solomon, the house of Pilate, the garden of Gethsemane, and some other places.

Among those which are determined, with more or less certainty, are the still existing tombs of the Kings, the Judges, and prophets, Jehoshaphat, Absalom, Zacharias, and others.


Many on the contrary cannot be made out immediately from the Scriptures, but by comparing them, and confronting the circumstances, may be satisfactorily ascertained, yet only on the spot. Some have been handed down to us by tradition, and have much in their favour; others again, which cannot be proved either by written or oral testimony, have at least had suitable and probable sites assigned them by the piety of the inhabitants; as they are not evidently contrary to any historical fact, they may be admitted by all impartial persons. This would certainly be better than useless caviling, and the mania of judging, while sitting at home, of things which are so remote.

THE
RUSSIAN MISSION TO CHINA,

IN 1820—1821.

ACCORDING to a treaty concluded in the year 1727 the Russian government was allowed to have a Mission established at Peking, by means of which the Russians have a free passage to the capital of China, which is almost inaccessible to other Europeans. In 1820 when the members of the mission of Peking were to be changed, Mr. G. F. Timkowski was appointed to accompany the new members from Kiachta to Peking, and to bring back the others into their own country. During the journey, and his stay in China, Mr. Timkowski kept a journal, which he enriched with historical, topographical, and statistical observations on the countries through which he passed. A part of this journal which is to consist of three volumes, has been published; from this we make some extracts.

September 2d.—During the night the thermometer was at 3° R. below the freezing point. In the valleys confined between high mountains, the air is always cold, besides as our road from Kiachta, which lies very high (2400 feet above the level of the sea) to the desert of Kobi continued to ascend almost at every werst, the air became more bleak and cold. In order that we might pass the Iro by day-light we determined to set out as early as possible, but could not pass till eleven o'clock, because our horses were very unruly. After proceeding 1½ wersts the road began to ascend and being pretty steep, the horses which drew the carts had much difficulty in proceeding. To the left of the mountain we saw a low plain, in which there were some tents and cattle, and here and there a few birch trees. We ascended for a long time, through narrow ravines between the steep heights of the Zagan Ola, or white mountain. In the low places the grass is high and thick, the top and sides of the mountain are covered with dwarfish trees, chiefly birches, whose leaves were already turning yellow. The day was hot, the horses and camels unused to the hard labour, frequently stood still, and thus delayed our progress. From the summit we perceived a hollow way between naked rocks, which with a sensible descent,




extends for a space of 10 wersts as far as the river Iro. On the sloping sides of the mountains we saw here and there little spots sown with millet, and some stacks of hay. A very old Lama, a stranger to us, who had ridden from Ibiziück to look at his valley, accompanied us for some time. Lifting up one of his arms, on which hung a rosary, he continually repeated the Tibetan prayer: *Om mani bat mi chom* (Lord have mercy on me), in a tone which all the Lamas have adopted, and which resembles the humming of a bee. He rejoiced highly at the approaching arrival of the new born Kutuchtu, chief priest of Fo, who by his appearance on the throne of Urga would reanimate the desolate Mongolian clergy.

Near the Iro, on the east, rises a lofty and steep mountain, which forms the corner of the chain that runs along the right bank of the river, its summit is covered with Obo stones, which adorn almost all the principal eminences of Mongolia. The inhabitants of these steppes, like the Savage in the deserts of America, convinced by experience of the existence of a superior, incomprehensible, and almighty power, is of opinion, that it is diffused through all the productions of nature; and the more majestic an object appears to the eye, in so much greater

abundance, according to his notion, must this beneficent spirit reside in it, for which reason a large stone, a lofty mountain, a spreading tree, or a broad stream are objects of his veneration. There he erects altars or Obo's, of heaps of stones, and prays before them in the fulness of his heart, to the almighty spirit. Every traveller who passes by such an altar, considers it as his duty to alight from his horse, to make several obeisances opposite the south side of the altar, with his face turned towards the north, and to leave some of his things. In general we found on such places, linen rags, and more frequently tufts of horse hair, as offerings of the Nomades for the preservation of this animal, their faithful companion. These altars serve also as guides to travellers and as landmarks.

When we came out of the hollow way we turned to the right past two hills, descending to the valley of the Iro, proceeded 5 wersts farther, and arrived at 6 in the evening at the place, where we were to cross it, having travelled this day 25 wersts. The missionaries in their wag-gons had arrived earlier, and had crossed to the left bank in the course of the day; during which a great number of inhabitants, chiefly inferior priests, had collected. By constant rain



during the summer, the Iro had been swollen to the breadth of 80 yards, and was very rapid. After we had arranged to send over the most important part of the baggage on a kind of raft,* we looked higher up for a shallower place; where the camels were led over with the heavy baggage, to which the water would do no injury. Though we continued very active till 10 o'clock at night; we could not get all the baggage over this day. The tents for the Mission were erected near to those of our attendants, at least one werst from the left bank. But as we were obliged on account of this distance again to put the horses to, and to load the camels after we had crossed the river, Idam Zsap, the commander of our Mongol attendants, gave orders by my desire to remove four tents to the bank, which was done by the Mongols with extraordinary celerity. The Iro rises 200 wersts from this place in the mountain of Gentai, flows from south-east to west, and falls, 20 wersts from here on the right, into the Orchon, on the banks of which, as well as on the Iro are abun-

* These rafts, called in Russian *Bats*, consist of large beams of fir hollowed out, which have some resemblance to boats, but are extremely narrow and are therefore always joined two together.



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J. H. Stowe del.

dant pastures. We saw here numerous flocks of sheep all of a white colour, and herds of full sized, stout, but not handsome horses.

Iro or Iuro signifies in the Mongol language, the blessed, for according to the account of the inhabitants, therē are mineral springs at its source. In the evening the Lamas, who had crossed the river with the mission, were led by their curiosity to come to my tent. Visits of this kind are usual; every one comes only to see the strangers, to receive a few biscuits, and to light his pipe at the fire in the tent. A great many Lamas inhabit these parts; for about three wersts above the station there is a wooden Pagan temple, on the banks of the Iro, and another 10 wersts below. This part of Mongolia as far as Urga, and 60 wersts beyond, is inhabited by Kalkas Mongols, who are subject to the Kutuchtu. The revenues collected from them, besides the personal services for the affairs of the country, and the tending of the numerous flocks of the Khan, serve for the maintenance of the Kutuchtu and his court.

Sept. 3.—As part of the baggage of the mission had remained on the other bank, I sent my interpreter in the morning to the Bitcheschi (writer) requesting him to have it brought over the river: at the same time I gave notice that

in order not to weary our cattle too much at the beginning of our journey I thought it necessary to let them rest to day. For the safe bringing over of all the baggage, in which fifteen workmen were employed, the commander of the station received for his extraordinary zeal a black goat-skin for himself, and two skins of Russian leather to distribute. Towards noon the Chinese serjeant accompanying the mission came to us, and by his inebriety justified the character which had been given us of him at Kiachta. He continually went from the tent of the Archimandrite, to mine, and from mine to the Archimandrite. He wanted to have whatever he saw, furs, girdles, plates, &c. I satisfied his rapacity as far as possible, gave him from my own things a good cloth, two wine-glasses, a knife, &c. Not yet satisfied he began in a high tone, but with a very faltering tongue to reckon up in Mongol, and Mantchoo all the inconveniences, to which he was subject on the journey for want of a watch, so that he did not know when to set out, when it was necessary to push forward, or when he should arrive at the end of the day's journey. Though he had already explained these important reasons the day before to Mr. Ostrowsky, who was returning to Kiachta, that he might communicate them to

me, we pretended for a long time not to understand his object, and contented ourselves with regretting that he was without a thing which was necessary. Impelled by his rapacity he began to ask plainly that we would give him a watch. Though I did my utmost to avoid complying with this unreasonable request, I found it impossible to get rid of him till I had given him my silver watch. As soon as he had obtained this valuable prize he left the tent, was placed upon his horse, and rode off. Soon after a Mongol came to me, who had brought back a valuable horse, which had run away from us at the first station. For his trouble he received a small looking-glass, with which he was extremely delighted, and lavished upon us the most flattering wishes for the success of our journey. At three o'clock in the afternoon, accompanied by the superintendant of our carriages, and the interpreter, I went to visit the writer and the commander of the escort. We were kindly received especially by the latter, who called me his younger brother (a Mongol compliment), and expressed his pleasure that this was the fifth mission which he accompanied to China. In his tent there was more elegance than in the other, he sat upon a carpet of felt spread on the floor, surrounded by Lamas and



common Mongols, and was evidently proud at the declaration of our gratitude to him. In the course of conversation he gave us a faithful description of our Chinese attendants. The writer, according to him, was weak both in body and mind, had never been on long journeys, and had probably obtained his present office in the Chinese fashion, by money. The sergeant has already given us a specimen of his character. The attendants of these two gentlemen had come from Peking to attend the Russian mission with equally interested views. Servants of this kind, according to the universal principle in China, are free people, who serve about the public offices, not excepting the ministers, for nothing, or at least for a very small salary. They interfere in all business, receive petitioners, even take a part in the decision of their petitions, and on all occasions reap great advantages for their masters and themselves. In case of an accusation against an officer, his servants are always first examined.

In about an hour we returned to our quarters, I had scarcely entered my tent when the commander of the station appeared with an urgent request, that our students might be prohibited from fishing, with which they were engaged, and offered to give them some cakes of tea as

a recompence. The chief of the mission immediately consented to the request of the Mongol, who considered the fish as inviolable, probably in consequence of their idea of the transmigration of souls, which they have received, together with their religion from India.

Sept. 4.—The night was pretty warm. The camels and one horse carts were sent before at nine o'clock in the morning, half an hour later the waggons followed. We had scarcely prepared to set off, when the Mongol women came to take down their four tents. In a quarter of an hour this was done, the oxen laden, and the whole carried home. Our attendants lodged in tents which are always kept ready for the purpose, at the stations. But the tents for the mission must be furnished by the inhabitants of the vicinity, which generally falls upon the poor; the rich find means to free themselves from this burthen. Our caravan ascended with great difficulty the steep sandy mountain, situated a werst from our last encampment. The range of mountains which we had left behind us on the other bank of the Iro, appeared like a vast, jagged wall. The summits rise like pointed pyramids. One branch of the chain extends like a separate wall, almost to the crossing of the river. To the right we saw bluish mountains

behind which the Orchon flows, about 20 wersts from our road. The great plain is covered with good grass; in many places wild flax grows (*linum perenne*), and the wild onion or rocambole (*Allium Scorodoprasum. Lin.*). During the day it was as hot as in the middle of summer; the high mountains prevented the wind from cooling the air. Our camels began to be accustomed to their work, and proceeded more quietly than on the first two days. Idam as usual remained with us for the first seven wersts, and then hastened forward to make preparations for the reception of the mission.

After having twice passed over hills we came into valleys, proceeded directly towards the south, and traversed the narrow valley of Mangirtui, which extends a great distance from north-east to west. We approached the eminence of Mangirtui by a way which did not seem to be a frequented road. On enquiring why we could see no beaten track here, we were informed that it was not till lately that the post road had come in this direction, and only persons passed here on horseback, that besides there were in this direction spring, summer, autumn, and winter roads, in the last of which the mission now was. The roads are changed here in every season that the post horses may always have

fresh grass. On account of the scarcity of water there were no Nomades in the plain. The wandering Mongols come here in the winter-time, when there is grass enough; instead of water, they content themselves with snow, and the neighbouring mountains afford protection against cold winds. After we had travelled 20 wersts from the Iro, we left the plain of Mangirtui, and began to ascend. There lies a prodigious stone, and on the right rises the mountain Narin Kundiskei, the foot and summit of which are covered with lofty pines. Farther to the west rises, almost to the clouds, the mountain of Mingadara (exceeding thousands) it is said that many stone Pagodas are in its neighbourhood, the largest of which serves for the abode of a thousand Lamas. The road from the summit was narrow, and very troublesome for the carriages. At length we came into a narrow, hollow way, where the *Robinia Pygmæa* grows in abundance, there was also some millet which they were already reaping; the ears are much smaller than those of the millet in Little Russia. Leaving this hollow way, we turned to the left over a little eminence, covered with greenish sand-stone, and after a journey of about 30 wersts, we reached the river Schara. At four in the afternoon the mission arrived at the station, the

carts had remained far behind, and did not join us till 8 o'clock in the evening.

Two handsome tents were ready for us, one for the chief of the mission, and the other for me, lined with coarse Nankin, adorned with flowered borders, and the ground was covered with quilted felt. We were indebted for this attention to the civility of Idam, by whose care tea was prepared for the Cossacks. Our beasts of burden were so much fatigued that I thought it necessary to let them rest the next day. The interpreter was sent with this notice to the sergeant, that he might communicate it to the writer. The Mantchoos who had never travelled with heavy baggage, objected that we should lose time if we would stop every other day; but Idam who was fully sensible of the fatigues of the journey, and saw that the cattle ought not to be overworked at the beginning, persuaded them to comply with our desire.

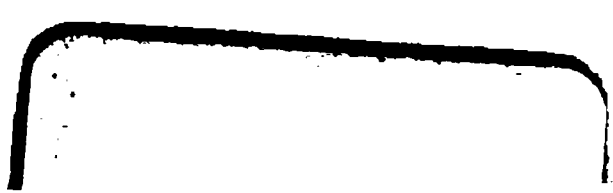
At this station I was visited by a Dargui, (a commander of 500 men,) of the territory Schunbinsk, and a porter of the household of the Kutuchtu, who by the order of the Schunzsaba or High Steward, who superintends all the affairs of the deified Kutuchtu, were to accompany the mission to Urga. They were politely received, and treated with tea and brandy.

Sept. 5.—High west wind blew all night, and the morning was cold. At 10 o'clock the writer paid the chief of the mission and me a visit, The Schara (or yellow-river, so called from the colour imparted to the waters by the yellow mud at the bottom) rises in the mountain of Türg-Etuia runs directly from south to north, then turns suddenly to the west, and flows into the Orchon. Near the station where we now were, the Schara receives the river Kuitun, from which the station receives its name. The Schara contains only small fish, in the Orchon however sturgeon are found, though but seldom; species of trout are more common: during the inundation in spring, large fish sometimes come into the Schara. We frequently saw numerous flocks of wild ducks, geese, and cranes. The inhabitants of these parts are very rich, as is evident from their good appearance and cleanly dress. On the other side of the Schara (on the left bank) we saw a great many tents and large flocks of sheep, and troops of horses. Near the station, some buffalo-cows were grazing, the milk of which is much esteemed by the Mongols. Some idle Lamas did not fail to visit us. We might imagine that these priests of the desert must be better informed than the common people, but experience shows the contrary. I

begged the Lamas who visited me, to read some written Mongol words ; they had however great trouble in making them out, while the chief of the station read them without difficulty. The latter, it is true, in consequence of his office, has often to do with written papers, while the Lamas hardly read anything but the Hanshur, a Tibetan book, the contents of which they know for the most part only by the appearance of the letters:

Sept. 6.—Having waded through the Schara, which is about twenty yards broad, we went two wersts upon a meadow towards the east, and then ascended with difficulty the summit of a steep mountain, where a large heap of stones lay on the left of the road. A werst further on, we had to ascend a steep sand hill, on a meadow which forms the left bank of the Schara. The meadow abounds in fine high grass and shady elm trees. The soil is sandy. Along the foot of a high mountain which lay at our left, we proceeded partly through a forest of pines, with which the whole mountain is covered. We then approached a Mongol Pagoda, which lay on the right of the road at the foot of the mountain Huntu-Sambu, on the projection of which stands a white pyramidal chapel. The pagoda was of wood, and resembled a small-house ; the

walls were painted white, and the roof red: inside, some perfumed dark red candles made of bark of trees, and musk were burning before the idols. A considerable trade is carried on between Tibet and Lamaites in these candles, and other things necessary for the temples of the religion of Fo: such as copper and wooden idols, vessels for the sacrifices, &c. Two Lamas were so engaged in reading their Hanshur, that they scarcely cast a look at their Russian visitors. The three adjoining tents are inhabited by the servants of the pagoda. From the pagoda we went two wersts further upon a meadow, waded through the Schara to the right bank, and continued our journey on a level smooth road. In some places we saw here and there the tents of wandering Mongols. Sometimes we passed over little hills; half-way, we met a Mongol carrier, who came from Urga with sixteen carts, each drawn by one ox, loaded with sugar-candy, belonging to a Chinese merchant in Kiachta. In the distance upon the banks of the Schara stood a white tent belonging to some Chinese merchant. These merchants travel about in Mongolia with various insignificant goods, which they barter with the inhabitants of the Steppe for sheep, which they drive for sale to Kalgan and Peking. Having again waded through the Schara,



we arrived at the station on the left bank, at four o'clock in the afternoon. We had travelled this day 25 wersts. On account of the cold weather (early in the morning it was only 5 degs. above freezing) some Mongols already appeared in their furs.

Sept. 7.—It had frozen during the night, the wind, as before, blowing from the north. Seven wersts from the station we reached the summit of the Zaidam (salt ground), so called from the salt formed by the natural evaporation of the pools in the Steppe. Descending, we had to the left a volcano, the insulated Mount Bangi, and on the right the Charachada (black stone). The hollow way of the Zaidam was bounded by the river Bain, which flows at the foot of high mountains. On our left to the south-east, we saw the chain Mangatai, in the recesses of which are numerous wild goats, deer, foxes, &c.; there are but few bears. We reached the station at an early hour, having travelled only twenty wersts this day. Around the station, and on the opposite side of the Bain, there are about twenty tents; large flocks of fine sheep, and droves of horses, proved the extensive population and the fertility of the Steppe.

Sept. 8.—We proceeded directly south to the mountain Tumukei, which consists of red gra-

nite, large pieces of which cover the sides. The summit and the clefts are overgrown with bushes, dwarf cherries, and red currant bushes, on which there was still plenty of fruit. As we ascended the mountain, we overtook the waggon in which the writer and the sergeant travelled, but they soon left us and drove on. Idam remained with us till noon, when we reached the summit, where there is a great Obo. Hence we came by a very steep descent into the hollow way which leads to the Chara. After proceeding some wersts farther, we found ourselves in a narrow ravine, where we had high mountains on the right, and on the left large masses of rock hanging over our heads. The Mongol guides had gone on before, with the baggage, and we remained alone quite uncertain which road to take. The marks left on the grass by the camels were our only guides. By a narrow pass, we ascended with great difficulty an eminence, from which there was a boundless prospect towards the east, of a number of naked mountains, the sharp summits of which resembled the waves of the sea as they shone in the blue horizon. Descending, we had to pass through a dangerous defile, and afterwards over a meadow, along the banks of the Chara. Op-

posite the station, we had to wade through the river to reach the left bank.

It is impossible to describe with what difficulty the baggage waggons proceeded in these mountainous countries. The camels too, which, according to custom, had had nothing to eat for fourteen days, had become rather weak, and were unable to go together in good order, as in the beginning. Immediately after our arrival, a heavy rain fell, and the whole day was very gloomy.

Sept. 9 — We rested on this day. It rained the whole night, and a dark autumnal day succeeded. We were here obliged, for the first time, to set up our tents, in addition to the four felt tents, in order to protect our baggage from the wet. Early in the morning many cranes and wild ducks flew past us. The chief of the mission, myself, the superintendent of our caravan, and the interpreter, paid a visit at noon to the writer, the sergeant, and Idam : the latter was sitting like the master of a family in the midst of his Mongols. A boy of seven years old, the son of the master of the station, was reading the Mongol alphabet. As we had learned that the Chinese celebrated this day as a holiday, I sent to them and to Idam some liquors and dried fruits, to

shew our respect to their usages. After dinner we went out to shoot ducks in the neighbouring marsh, and with a net which we had brought with us, caught some fish, in which the Chara abounds. This diversion, which is unknown among the Mongols, attracted a great number of spectators. We were very successful in our sport; but Idam, who came to us with his nephew, being a zealous adherent of the transmigration of souls, implored us to throw the fish into the water again, with which we complied, to oblige him. On our return we saw a woman milking the mares, for the Mongols drink this milk as the Calmucks do, and some, as we were told, also use camel's-milk like the Kirghis. Towards evening a number of Mongols collected about us, being attracted by the singing of the Cossacks; our attendants too, listened for a long time, and seemed to be pleased with the Russian tunes. The sergeant, who was sitting in the mean time in the tent of the Archimandrite, learnt some Russian words. Werbljud (camel), and other words, consisting of many consonants, he could not pronounce at all. It may be observed that the Mantchoos have much more facility in pronouncing the Russian words than the Chinese have, as we may judge by the unintelligible jargon which the latter use in their

intercourse with our merchants in Kiachta. For instance, instead of loschad (a horse), they say loschka (a spoon); instead of messjaz (a month), they say wmjesstje (immediately), &c. Late in the evening we were visited by a very tall Lama, who looked at us and our things with much curiosity. He related to us, that on account of the scarcity of forage in 1819, and of the cold winter, such numbers of cattle had died this spring (1820), that many persons had not above five left out of a hundred, for which reason they found it very difficult to subsist. When the Mongols have many cows and sheep, they live on their flesh, otherwise they are contented with milk, dried cheese, and millet; to banish care, they also prepare, though only in summer, a kind of brandy of milk. They complain that they suffer much by the cold in the winter in their huts. They wrap their children in furs and skins; the wool of their sheep is employed in manufacturing felt for domestic purposes. These Mongols have no manufactories or mechanical trades, except indeed smiths, but they are very awkward.

September 10.—We set out from the station at ten o'clock, leaving the Mangatai mountains behind us, on the right bank of the Chara: to the east, at a great distance from it, rises singly the

mountain Duloschi, the summit of which, like Mont Blanc, looks like a great mole-hill or camel's-bunch, and still farther eastwards, Mount Mandal, the highest that we had yet seen. One werst from the station, we went along the foot of the mountain lying to the west, we then turned to the right towards the south up the little river Boro, which falls into the Chara at the station we had just left. It is an inconsiderable stream, which flows through a deep valley, in a north-easterly direction; its banks are covered with luxuriant grass. In the meadow and neighbouring heights, we saw numerous tents and herds of cattle. Much corn seems to be cultivated here, millet, barley, and wheat; the latter had been blighted by the frost while still green. Millet and other corn, when ripe, is pulled up by the roots, though sometimes it is reaped. The grain is trodden out by horses. In general, the valley through which the Boro flows is well adapted for agriculture; the soil is sandy and free from stones. On the banks, were numerous flocks of cranes, which appeared quite fearless, and in the river were multitudes of wild ducks, which we shot without difficulty. The report of our fire-arms attracted some Nomades, who better understand the use of bows and arrows.

In this valley, which is about fifteen wersts in

length, we met, for the first time, numbers of Mongols returning from Urga to adore the Lama. This high priest of Fo, who was seven years of age, had caused by his recent appearance a great commotion among the zealous Mongols of Kalkas. Old and young, men and women, in rich attire, with caps of sable, and riding on their best horses and camels, passed us in troops. Some were hastening to the Lama, others returning home after being reanimated by the sight of him. After travelling sixteen wersts from the Chara, in a level and straight road, we came to the valley of Zsun Mado, on the right bank of the Bero, where our missions rested in 1694 and 1807. Three leagues farther we ascended a great hill called Manitu, where there is an Obo. On the south side of the hill we met a large caravan of pilgrims returning from Urga. Some had even been to Tibet to receive their phoenix, the new-born Lama, from the bosom of his family, and had brought him to his residence with his whole establishment upon their own camels. The inhabitants of Kalkas had for this purpose assembled above a thousand camels. The jaded beasts proved the length and fatigue of the journey they had made. Our attention was attracted by a snow white camel of extraordinary size, such as we had never seen. The Mongols

know the Russians, and also that many of our people speak their language, hence we were greeted on all sides with repeated wishes for our health and happiness.

Some wersts farther we crossed the Boro, opposite to the station of Chorimtu, which is on the right bank of Mount Noin. We had this day travelled twenty-three wersts.

To the south of the station rises a mountain in the form of a very large rampart, which terminates in the rock Chorimtu. On the right towards the west, a large mountain valley opens, where the Boro takes its rise in a lake of the same name, and to the left is Mount Ugemul, with an Obo on the top. After our arrival at the station, some of the party were inclined to avail themselves of the warm evening and walk in the neighbouring forest of Noin; but Idam suddenly sent a servant to me, and soon followed himself, requesting that the missionaries might be called back, because, as he said, there were many bears in the forest. With the consent of the Archimandrite, a Cossack was sent with this message, and they immediately returned.

We afterwards learnt from Idam's servant that it was forbidden to enter the forests of the Noin Mountain. The princes come hither from Urga, with their whole court, to enjoy the diversion of

hunting. One autumn they hunt on the Boro, and the next, in the mountains beyond Urga. The Nomades residing in the neighbourhood are bound to prevent all persons, not only from hunting, but even from setting a foot in these gloomy forests, set apart for the pastime of their sovereigns. We find, however, among nations that boast of their civilization, game-laws and privileges, the slightest violation of which, even the firing of a gun, is treated as a felony. Last year there was no hunt on the Boro, nor yet in the other places, because the Kutuchta was expected at Urga. This year the prince intends to hunt beyond Urga. When the Bodgdo, so the Mongols call the Emperor of China, goes from Peking to the palaces of Sheche (beyond the great wall to the east) for the purpose of hunting, he causes the strictest orders to be issued to all the vassal Mongol princes, according to which some are to hunt in their own territory, and others are to come for this purpose to Sheche. The best or rarest game, especially wild boars, are sent as a present to his majesty. It is said that for these hunting parties of the prince about 500 of the best horsemen and bowmen are sent by the Kalkas horde. The wild beasts are driven together: only the Wan and the Amban (princes of Urga) and the

Mantchoa officers in their train, have the privilege of shooting the numerous herds of game: no Mongol, under pain of death, dare discharge an arrow in that direction, he is at the most permitted to pursue the game which has broken the barrier. Our present station is the chief place of rendezvous of these distinguished hunters, and here they celebrate their victories. The word Chorimtu also signifies wedding. The banks of the Boro near our station were covered with the blue and white linen tents of the pilgrims going to Urga. The Mongols looked at the Russians with great curiosity, but were so modest that they contented themselves with a glance into our huts.

In the evening the sergeant was with the Archimandrite, and asked among other questions whether there were mandarins in Russia, what was the rank of the chief of the mission compared with the writer, whether he was in the civil or military service, and he was much dejected, because in the preceding night, being the fourteenth or half of their ninth month, the moon was surrounded with thick black clouds, which the superstitious Chinese consider to be a bad omen.

Sept. 11.—This day we also continually met Mongols returning from Urga. A Lama, a hun-

dred years old, who from age could scarcely sit on horseback, and was supported by two servants, saluted the Russian travellers, and taking as all for students, hoped that we should make much progress in the sciences when we came to Pekin. The caps of the Mongol Lamas are covered externally with sheep's skins, the long wool of which, dyed yellow, gives them an extraordinary appearance. Among others we met a numerous family from the banks of the Iro, subjects of the Amban Beisse, who accompanied Count Golowkin in 1805 and 1806, and lives in the town of Uljassutai to the west of the Selenga. The laity and the Lamas, as well as the women and children, were all on horseback. There were two boys seven years old, (the same age as the Kutucha) carried in baskets on a camel; they were intended for Lamas. The Mongols consider it an imperative duty to bring up at least one of the family as a priest, hence the number of Lamas is very great. As a present for the Kutucha, they had twenty horses, some of which were very handsome. On my asking the price of one of these horses, the Mongol stated it at sixty cakes of tea, that is, twelve Lanas, or twenty-four silver roubles.

Sept. 12.—Our present station is kept by a division of Mongols. We found every thing in

disorder, the wood was wet, the Mongols were very slow in catching our horses, pretending that we had no proper horses to go after the others. When the former missions passed through, a great number of baggage waggons was used as an enclosure for the horses, that they might not run away when they were to be caught. On this day we travelled 20 wersts. On the 13th we halted.

On the 14th, among many Lamas and Mongols returning from Urga, we met one named Gendun, who formerly held the same situation as our present companion Idam. He now commands a whole division of Mongols, near to our frontiers, and had been sent this year to Irkutsk with despatches from the prince. It was evident that he must be very rich, some camels carried his very neat travelling hut, many saddle horses followed. His wife was in a Chinese coach, drawn by a horse in handsome harness. We travelled this day 18 wersts. Immediately after our arrival at the station, the sergeant set out for Urga to give notice to the prince of the approach of the mission. Before he left us he came to enquire of me how many people and animals we had with us. The mission with the attendants consisted of forty three persons, for the

baggage we had 84 camels, 149 horses, and 26 oxen, the property of the crown.

After the departure of the sergeant, Idam sent to inform me that the prince had let him know that the Emperor of China had lately died at the age of 62. We received this news with considerable anxiety, as we feared it might prevent the prosecution of our journey. We observed that the buttons and tassels had disappeared from the caps of the Chinese and Mongol officers, even the servants took off theirs; the officers were besides obliged to put on white garments, and as well as the common people not to cut their hair; in this consists their mourning, which lasts a 100 days.

Sept. 15.—It blew violently the whole night, towards day-break it froze, the cattle trembled for cold and wet, and we wished not to continue our journey to day, but the writer begged we would not delay, as the prince expected us to day at Urga. This being the anniversary of our Emperor's coronation, the service of the day was performed in the morning.

Idam and the writer visited me. The subject of our conversation was the death of the Emperor of China. I expressed my regret at the loss of their sovereign; Idam had known it two days

before, but had been commanded to keep it secret till we reached the last station before Urga. The road to day was extremely fatiguing, our camels continually slipped and fell as we ascended the mountain of Guntu, which was the highest of all we had yet passed. It was here that on the return of the embassy from Urga, in the year 1806, the Mongols made the looking-glasses and coaches of Count Golowkin slide down from the top of the mountain to the bottom, by which many of them were broken. At the top of Guntu is a very great Obo. Near to it are stone and wooden posts with Tibetan inscriptions, which neither we nor the Mongol Lamas could understand. The summits of the mountains are clothed with larches, pines, and birch, at present deep snow lay everywhere.

At two in the afternoon we could scarcely go any further, the declivity of the mountain was extremely steep, and strewn with flint-stones. From Guntu to Urga we passed through a valley between high mountains, through which a rapid stream runs in various windings, which obliged us to wade through it several times. In many places firs and larches were growing in a straight line, as if they had been planted by art. Seven wersts from Urga on the

right of the road is a little pagoda, and on the left or east in a narrow ravine another heathen temple built of wood, painted white, with a red roof. Two wersts further on the left hand we saw a large temple built in the Tibetan style, surrounded by mountains like an amphitheatre. On the highest summit of the rock lying to the south, there are some Tangut or Tibetan letters of colossal size, hewn on white stone, which, according to the assurance of our Mongol attendants, contain their ordinary prayer, Om-manibat-mi-chom. After sun-set the mission at length arrived at Urga, in the Russian house, situated to the east of the residence of the Kutuchtau, and about two wersts from the right bank of the Tola.—We had this day travelled 25 wersts.

PEKIN.

After our arrival at Pekin, on the 2nd of December, 1820, the new mission returned solemn thanksgivings to God for the happy termination of our journey. On leaving the church the Archimandrite Peter was received by the Mantchoo Lissanschen, who was now in his sixty-fifth year, and had been private teacher of the Chinese and Mantchoo languages, to the Russians since his twenty-fifth year, without including two teachers of the crown who had been

nominated to this situation by the Chinese government. Lissanschen had been the instructor of the Archimandrite Peter and of Messrs. Lipowzow and Nowosselow, which office he continued to hold, with the students who had resided at Peking, since 1808.

Through the medium of Mr. Ssipakow, a student of the late mission, I concluded my account with the person who had conducted the new mission from Kalgan.

As a testimony of our satisfaction, I gave this man, whose name was Lilandan, for his great zeal and attention in conducting the mission, a present, worth thirty rubles. We afterwards learned that similar presents serve as testimonies of exemplary conduct in conducting the officers and crown property of a foreign kingdom, and particularly of Russia, of which the better informed Chinese entertain a very high opinion.

The Archimandrite Hyacinth told us that he had translated from the Chinese into the Russian, the history of China, and a complete geography of the countries subject to it. He expressed an ardent wish to be able, on his return to his native country, to devote his time chiefly to the completion and finishing of his translations. He assured us among other things that our missionaries, who had hitherto studied at

Pekin, had been unable thoroughly to investigate the significations of the Chinese words, and therefore paid less attention to the constitution, laws, customs, and opinions of the Chinese. Hence the former correspondence of our ministry, with the office of foreign affairs at Pekin, was, in his opinion, not always adapted to its object, as it was not conformable to the notions entertained here.

He on this occasion shewed us the copy of his report to our government on the formation of a new mission, and he presumed that ours had been partly organized on his plan. He declared that he had been obliged to expend a large sum of his own money to procure interesting papers; for instance, those relating to the English embassy to Pekin in 1816, and other similar documents. Good manufactured articles he said, may sometimes be of very great use in our intercourse with the Chinese officers. In conversing on the instruction of the new missionaries, the Tibetan language was mentioned. It is said that this language may be learned at Pekin of those Lamas who have received their education in Tibet, especially in the residence of the Dalai Lama, where the most correct pronunciation prevails. These Lamas live out of Pekin, in the temple of Fo, called by the Chinese the

Yellow Temple. The salary of such a master cannot be inconsiderable, because there are so few persons who thoroughly understand the Tibetan language, and on account of the distance of this temple from the Russian house.

December 4.—At three o'clock, in the afternoon, accompanied by the inspector and the student Simailow, I went to the southern suburb called Woilotschen, i. e. the Outer City. The streets are very dirty, and crowded chiefly with men. Barbers and other similar trades carry on their business in the street. We rode close by the southern gate of the Red Town (so called, from the colour of the walls) within which is the palace of the emperor. The buildings of the palace within the walls are not visible. The market place, opposite the gates, is paved with flags, and surrounded with granite pillars; nobody is allowed to ride through, and only pedestrians admitted. The sentinels of the guard were sitting on stools, at the gate of the parade, leisurely smoking their pipes. They did not look very fine in their soiled clothes. Nearly all the houses in Pekin are nothing but shops, provided with various goods, each shop selling only one kind. In the street, which passes the Russian house, is a large private pawn house, of which there are a great many in Pekin. Tho

extravagance and poverty of the Mantchees, enrich these establishments, which are called Danpu by the Chinese. Government has not any such, but the great princes of the empire keep them under the name of Crown pledge houses, which are called Guan Danpu. The goods are taken in for half the value, and for not longer than three years; for a thousand schechens which are equal to a lana, or two silver rubles, the usurers take twenty schechens monthly, upon a dress, and thirty upon articles of metal and jewellery. Some of our missionaries have, at times, been unfortunately compelled to have recourse to this ruinous expedient.

December 9.—To-day, according to the Chinese reckoning, was the sixteenth day of the eleventh moon, and the summer solstice. The emperor rode in procession to the Temple of Heaven, which is situated at the end of the Merchants' Town, or the southern suburb; he returns from thence to his palace to-morrow. The emperor, as the chief priest of all religions within the limits of the Chinese empire, makes to-day, in this temple, a purificatory sacrifice for the execution of all criminals condemned during the year by the law. It is said, that about this time, all the criminals are executed in the whole empire; they are either beheaded or strangled.

State criminals, such as rebels, &c. are executed without delay, immediately after sentence has been pronounced. Respecting the persons condemned to death by the criminal authorities, a list is presented to the emperor, specifying their crimes. The emperor marks with his own hand those who are to be executed; all the rest are conducted to the place of execution, and then carried back to prison to await the decision of their fate. Those who are condemned, are fed at the expense of Government the day previous to their execution. It happens, though very rarely, that a criminal is thus set down three times on the list presented to the emperor, but is not marked for capital punishment, because there are more heinous criminals; such a one is then exempted from execution, and even becomes a jailor, or is transported. The emperor Kien-long, on account of his severity, but seldom made these exceptions. During the reign of Kia-King, on the other hand, of fifty criminals conducted to the place of execution, only fourteen suffered.

Yesterday, sacrificial vessels were carried to the above-named temple, on elephants richly adorned. This morning, at five o'clock, the emperor rode thither, accompanied by a numerous train, consisting of the chief officers of the

army and state. No citizen is permitted to have a view of his majesty in such solemn processions. The gates, doors, and windows of the houses are closed, and the cross streets covered with hangings. Already, on the preceding evening, the sentinels who kept the gate, informed us that none of us would be allowed to go out the following morning. Sentinels are stationed at the doors of those houses, where the emperor passes, in order to guard against any sudden attack upon his life, such as was once made upon the late emperor. Returning one day to his palace, the head cook, who had formerly been in the service of his brother, had attacked him with a knife at the entrance of the imperial apartments, in the presence of the eunuchs; but one of the life guards, who was standing behind the imperial litter, immediately seized the wretch, and thus frustrated his criminal intention, in doing which he received several wounds in his side. For this preservation of his life, the emperor raised the faithful soldier to the rank of Gun (prince of the fifth class) and gave him a considerable fortune.

December 20.--At nine o'clock in the morning, Mr. Fereira (in Chinese Fu-loe), the third member of the Astronomical Academy, came into the Convent: he wore on his cap a crystal but-

ton, the badge of the fifth class. He first went into the church ; he stood still at the western door, and bowed, and then went up to the Archimandrite Hyacinth. The Archimandrite Peter and I, were invited to meet him. Fereira is a native of Portugal, and about seventy years of age ; he was very friendly, and congratulated us on the commencement of the new year, according to the new style. He was delighted with the great deeds of the emperor Alexander, with his victories over the French, &c. When the conversation turned on the oppression of the Roman Catholic missionaries in China, he praised the emperor Kanghee, who shewed much attention to the Jesuits, and gave them large tracts of land ; but he censured Yong-tchin, and particularly the deceased Kia-King, who had greatly persecuted the Catholics ; he spoke at length, on toleration, grievances, &c. and quoted texts from scripture. We conversed with Fereira in Latin, as he, like all the Portuguese, now residing at Pekin, understand no other, except their own ; he speaks but little Chinese, and that of the worst dialect, which is chiefly used at Canton, where it is usually learned by the Jesuits, when sent by the Pope to China, from the *congregatio de propaganda fide*.

The Roman Catholics have long since drawn

upon themselves the displeasure of the Chinese government, by their unbounded zeal in propagating their doctrine, by law-suits about their revenues, and by the disputes between the priests of the different European states. Thus the Jesuits of the French, or northern convent in Pekin (at present there is not a single French priest here) sent letters to the Pope by way of Canton, complaining of the Portuguese clergy, with plans of the lands and chapels, which the latter had taken from them. By some means, probably by the intrigues of the Portuguese, the deputies were seized on their way to Canton. The papers were laid before the emperor Kia-King, and in consequence of the strong suspicions excited by the plan, in which were laid down some parts of the interior, a new and violent persecution was commenced against the Jesuits in 1805.

The Archimandrite Hyacinth told us that not long before the arrival of the new mission, one of the procurators had represented to the emperor Kia-King, that it would be advisable to issue a positive law respecting the Catholics living in China. Some members of the tribunal of foreign affairs, at that time expressed a wish to the Archimandrite, that the Russian students or clergy, coming to Pekin, might be substituted

in the Astronomical Academy, for the Jesuits, whom the Chinese had long been disposed to expel, and who are retained only by virtue of the edict issued respecting them by the emperor Kanghee.

By being engaged in this Academy, the Jesuits enter entirely into the Chinese service. They receive a salary and provisions; dress in the Chinese fashion, and wear on their caps, buttons which designate the various ranks in China.

December 24.—At twelve o'clock, at noon, Schumin, or Schuloe, the head master of the Pekin school, for teaching the Russian language, and who was about thirty years of age, came to pay his respects to the Archimandrite Peter. It was very difficult to obtain this situation; but when the time for the change of the mission approached, Schumin communicated to the student Ssipakow, his friend, his intention of applying for another situation, for he cannot remain in his present office, without the assistance of the Russians. When Schumin heard that Pa-loe (Paul Kamensskij), who is known here for his extraordinary progress in the Mantschoo language, had been appointed chief of the new mission, he was very much pleased, and endeavoured to obtain his favour. Schumin presented the Archimandrite Peter with some

Chinese dialogues, composed by himself, which he requested him to translate into Russian, for the use of his scholars.

According to the treaties between Russia and China, the only ones which the latter empire has concluded with Europeans, the correspondence between the two states must be carried on in the Russian, Manshur, and Latin languages. For this purpose a particular school has been founded at Peking, where four and twenty young Manchurs of the first families, are instructed in the Russian language. After completing their course of study, which is followed by a rigorous examination, they enter with special privileges into the service of the tribunal of foreign affairs, or are sent to the frontier towns, where a knowledge of the Russian is requisite.

Notwithstanding the care bestowed by the reigning dynasty upon this school, it may be boldly affirmed, that it is far from answering the end proposed. The Russians removed from Albazin, gave the Manchurs the first idea of learning the Russian language. Some members of the mission followed this occupation, with great advantage to themselves, at the invitation of the Chinese government, which was very desirous that the Russians residing at Peking, might contribute to the improvement of the Manchurs.

Yet, in spite of all this, the institution is defective. We need but read an article translated by a Manshur into Russian, and the first lines will convince us that not even the first rules of the grammar had been observed; all is done on the model of old documents that have come from Russia. We were told that at the time of the last Russian embassy to China in 1806, the well-known Jun-Dun Dortschshi, prince of Urga, sent to Peking for translators, who had been educated in the school for the Russian language. He hoped to find in them secret and faithful interpreters in his negotiations with the Russians, independent of our translators. But the event, on the first interview with one of the gentlemen of the embassy, convinced the prince how vain his expectations had been. The Manshur interpreters candidly confessed that they did not understand a word of what the Russian had spoken in the assembly. On the following day the prince sent them back to Peking with the commendations due to their merit.

I this time found with the Archimandrite Hyacinth, the Du Lama, treasurer to a temple of the Chuan-sa, who invited me to visit him in his solitary abode. He told us that the Du Lama, an older priest, had put up with them when he lately came with the tribute for the new

Emperor, from Little or Lower Tibet, from the high priest Bantschan Erdeni. Next year, according to the ordinance, the tributaries from Lassa, the capital of Great Tibet, must come though they have been waiting for five years for the birth of the new Dalai Lama. It is observed that the prudent Chinese government wishes to contrive that the Dalai Lama, this immortal phoenix, may arise in the midst of some distinguished family in the southern provinces of China. The Kutuchta who came this year to the Kalchas Mongols in Urga, is the son of a well-known civil officer in the Chinese province of Setchuen.

January 3, 1821.—In our excursion into the outer town, we visited the booksellers' shops; most of the books were printed about thirty years since. The streets are very dirty, especially in that part of the town where the glass manufactory, belonging to the crown, is situated. The jewellers' shops are in the same quarter:

On our return we saw some Manshurs on foot practising archery, in a place between the southern wall of the city and the canal. In this exercise they chiefly aim at a regular and graceful attitude of the body, and neglect the main point, namely, to discharge the arrow with the rapidity of a musket shot.

Before each of the city gates stand asses ready saddled, on which the Chinese ride from one gate to the other, which costs no more than about four copecks in copper: they are also used to convey light goods. In the winter they ride over the frozen canal. Some cross it in a kind of sledge, which is drawn by a labourer. It is said that in summer, people travel on the road from Peking into the southern provinces, in little carriages drawn by men; a consequence of the immense population, which hinders them from obtaining a more honourable livelihood; in proportion to the population there is too little land in China.

Numerous beggars reside in the caverns under the city wall. It is impossible to imagine a more melancholy and repulsive sight than these unfortunates; almost entirely destitute of clothing, covered with a piece of tattered matting, they hover about the shops in the merchants' town or southern suburb, and beg alms; when they have received a few tschechen they return to their caves.

Nobody was able accurately to inform us whether there is in Peking any hospital or any similar charitable institution, except the Foundling in Wailotschen, near the gate of Guans-zjui, which was founded by the present dynasty, in

the first year of Kanghee (1662.) In 1724 Schizun founded a stone monument, gave a thousand lanas in silver, and ordered the government to choose persons who would voluntarily undertake the management of this establishment. It is said, however, that in the winter time, boiled maize is given to the beggars in the name of the emperor; but only a few succeed in profiting by this favour of his majesty. In the temple of Lunwantan, which is near the city wall in Wai-lotschen, behind the gate of the eastern citadel, the priests distribute boiled groats among the poor, from the money which they have collected from the 15th day of the 10th month, to the 15th of the 2nd month of the following year, that is, during the four severe months from November to March.

January 10th.—The Archimandrites Hyacinth and Peter, with Mr. Rasgildjew and myself, paid a visit to the Rev. Mr. Gau, who was appointed Bishop of Pekin, of the Franciscan order, and resides in the northern convent, where the French clergy formerly lived, till the last of them of the family of Grammont, was sent away. This convent lies in the north-western part of the Red Town, where the Emperor's palace is. On our arrival we were conducted by some baptised Chinese into the parlour; and soon after the chief

of the convent appeared in Chinese costume. Gau is about thirty-eight years old, a native of Portugal, and speaks tolerably good Latin; in the senate he performs the office of a translator of that language.

He received us very politely. The chief subjects of our conversation were, the journey we had just completed, the celebrated victories of the Russians over the French, and the failure of the last English embassy to Peking. In the parlour were two book cases, and the walls were hung with portraits of several of the French kings, among whom was the unfortunate Louis XVI.; also one of Father Paranime, known through the negotiations respecting the frontiers between Russia and China, and some other French Jesuits. We likewise saw prints representing the bloody battles of the Chinese, with the Shungoures, during the reign of Kanghee. The battles were painted at Peking by the Jesuits living there, and engraved at Paris, whence they were sent with the plates to Peking. There was much spirit in the design, and the engraving was good. The windows in the parlour were, according to the Chinese fashion, pasted with paper.

In about half an hour we were conducted by Gau into the church of the convent, which is

built of stone, of rude architecture, in the form of an oblong quadrangle. On the walls are tolerable pictures, representing subjects out of scripture history. It is said that the former convent, in the eastern part of Peking, which was the residence of Italian, German, and other clergy, was a splendid testimony of the taste of the Europeans in the fine arts; since the fire this convent is entirely destroyed. The church of the northern convent is the most antient Christian temple in Peking, and remarkable as being the model after which, in consequence of the choice of our clergy in China, the church in the Russian house was built at the expense of the Emperor Yong-tchin. Some carpets are laid down in the church opposite the altar, on which the baptised Chinese sit during divine service. Round the church grow cypress and juniper trees, which, according to the French and Dutch fashion, are cut into various figures.

We returned to the parlour, where Gau regaled us with Chinese confectionary and coffee from the island of Macao. To the honour of his countrymen, the Portuguese Gau pretends that no coffee grows in the English colonies. He complained that it was very long since he had received any newspapers from Europe or Brazil,

and he was therefore ignorant of the political events in Europe. After thanking our host for his attention and politeness, we took our leave.

The northern convent consists of four large courts, several very pretty houses, and other buildings, but all much decayed and neglected ; every thing proves that the Jesuits in China have not even a shadow of the influence which they possessed under the Emperors Kanghee and Kien-Long. Pius, bishop of the southern Christians, likewise a native of Portugal, resides in this convent.

January 11.—Availing myself of the invitation of the Du Lama, I went with the officers about me, and the Archimandrite Hyacinth, to visit the temple of the Chuan-sa.

The way to it is out of the gate by which the mission entered Peking. Near this gate are numerous wells of very good water, which flows from the western mountains. These wells are kept up by the inhabitants of the province of Shandun, who are considered as the best workmen in Peking, and in fact the Shandun is distinguished from the rest of the Chinese by his lofty stature, bodily strength, and open countenance. They bring water into the houses of the rich, and the tea houses in Peking, for a certain price, on barrows with two wheels, on each


of which are ten pails; otherwise carts and mules are sent by the opulent to fetch water. For the Emperor's court, water is brought from the springs of the western mountains, about fifteen wersts from Peking. The water in the wells of the city is brackish and impure, though not unwholesome. According to a regulation of the Chinese government, the Russian house is supplied with water from the well in the court of the tribunal of foreign affairs, which is the best in the whole neighbourhood.

To the east of the road we see the walls of the Temple of the Sun, where the Emperor on the day of the summer solstice makes an offering to the deity, and presents prayers for a plentiful harvest: round the temple is a large tract of land enclosed within a stone wall; but there is nothing remarkable about it. After we had passed over a large field, which is the place of exercise for the cavalry and infantry of the Peking division, we came to the middle temple of Chuan-sa, nine wersts from Peking. We were received by one of the Lamas residing there, who acted as our guide.

The first temple, which is the western, was built by the Emperor, the two others, the middle and the eastern one, by Mongol princes, who assisted the Mantchoos in the conquest of China

in the middle of the seventeenth century, and penetrated at that time into Peking, the northern capital of the last dynasty of Ming. The Mongol clergy formerly resided in these temples; but as they, by negligence and extravagance, had wasted the property and alienated the lands, houses, &c. belonging to these temples, Chinese Lamas of the religion of Fo have been put in their place.

We went first into the temple, which is large, built in the form of a long parallelogram, two stories high, and, according to the Tibetan religious ordinances, stands in the direction of south to north, and is covered with yellow tiles. In front and within the temple are pillars of odorous wood, each of which, on account of their size, and the distance from which they were brought, is estimated at the value of 10,000 rubles, bank notes. Under the Emperor Kien-Long, a Tibetan Bantschan Erdeni lived and died in this temple. In an apartment in the upper story they still shew the bed where he died of the small-pox; the Mongols pray with devotion at this bed of their high priest. In another apartment are preserved the models of temples, which are executed with much skill, in mahogany. From the upper balcony there is a view of the walls of Peking with its environs.



Round the temple are planted close rows of cypresses, and under the roof are kept large flocks of pigeons. To the west of the temple, behind two walls, rises an obelisk of white marble. It is said that this obelisk was erected by the Emperor Kien-Long, in memory of Bantschan Erdeni; but to judge by the figures from the history of Fo, which are engraved on the sides of it, it may be conjectured with greater probability that this monument was erected in honour of that law-giver, whose doctrine is received in Tibet, China, Mongolia, by the Buriats, and the Kalmucks. This obelisk (like the two in Pekin) is built in the form of an octagonal tower, fifteen fathoms high, and covered above with a large cap of pure gold, of the shape of the cap worn by the Dalai Lama; on the four sides are marble pillars with sculpture. On the whole, the building is handsome, and cost large sums, so that Kien-long, when he visited this obelisk after it was finished, said, "this is a golden monument," meaning that it had cost much money. To the north, near the obelisk, is a small palace, in which the Emperor generally takes some repose after he has sacrificed in the Temple of the Sun.

On our return, at the request of the Lama who accompanied us, we visited the Du Lama, who had come from Little Tibet, and resides in

one of the houses belonging to the temple. He is above sixty years old, and was surrounded by the Tibetans who had come with him, and by priests from Peking. He received us very politely, and asked us, through his interpreter, how long it was since we had arrived here from our own country, what we intended to do at Peking, and how long we intended to stay. He then regaled us with *asturan*, that is, tea boiled with flour and milk, and in half an hour we took our leave. The Tibetans are very plain in their manners, and are unacquainted with luxury; in countenance they resemble our gypsies, and wear long coats like the Russians; they do not cut their hair, but braid it on the head in a tail, and have ear-rings with turquoises.

We then went to the foundry, which is in the court near this heathen temple; idols of various sizes are cast and gilt here, and sent throughout all Mongolia; the idols which come from Tibet are very highly esteemed by the Mongols and Chinese. Small idols are sold according to their size. The founder absolutely refused to sell us any idol, considering us as heathens.

From these temples we turned to the city by another road. Through narrow streets and valleys we reached the north-eastern part of Peking, in which is our church of the Assumption of the Virgin (for-

merly the church of Saint Nicholas) and some small houses belonging to the crown, which are scattered in various parts of this quarter of the city. We had no key with us, and therefore could not this time see the interior of the church which is very old; it was founded on the settlement of our people from Albazin, in a heathen temple that formerly stood here. The most southerly of the small houses near the church, is inhabited by a Mantchoo of the imperial guard, who pays a monthly rent of about eight copper rubles, and is at the same time bound to guard the church. Before the house is a large hollow place, which, during the summer rains, is filled with water, and converted into a stagnant pool.

February 4th.—Having received an invitation from the Lamas residing in the temples of Chuan-sa to see the Kutuehta perform the religious ceremonies, the Archimandrites, myself, and the inspector, left the city at 8 o'clock in the morning:

Three Kutuehtas live in Pekin; (the Chinese call these cardinals directly. Fo) the first, who was to perform service this day, resides in a large temple in the Red Town near the palace, the second in the northern part of Pekin, and the third in the middle part of the city; he has now been sent by the new Emperor from Chuan-sa to Tibet, to celebrate the obsequies for his father.

Kia-King, and to distribute on this occasion the alms of the Emperor.

When we came to the treasurer at Chuan-sa, we were conducted into the eastern temple, where the religious ceremonies before the idols had already commenced. All the doors were locked to exclude the crowd, and we were obliged to go through the apartments of the Lamas to the principal temple. The police officers would not let us approach the Kutuchta, especially when they saw our sabres; on the assurance of our guides they however consented, and so we entered the vestibule of the temple, which is built of white marble. Here sat the Kutuchta in a very large arm chair, with his face turned towards the door of the temple; before him stood a long table covered with a piece of yellow flowered silk, on which stood dishes with corn, water, &c. On both sides of this altar stood five Lamas from eastern Mongolia, they read and sung prayers in the Tibetan language in octaves; the uncommonly deep and powerful bass voices resounded in the air like the lower notes of the horn. The Lamas from the temples at Peking, about two hundred in number, were seated on the right and left in twelve rows on the floor. The Kutuchta struck at intervals silver cymbals; as a signal to the Lamas alter-

nately to sing and to play. The orchestra was placed apart; they played on wind-instruments, copper cymbals of various sizes, and drums; this kind of music is more calculated to inspire terror than feeling and emotion. The yellow dress of the Lamas, and their shorn heads, gave them in our eyes a singular appearance. There were no worshippers of Fo present, except priests. The Kutuchta, who was about thirty-five years old, several times turned his eyes upon us, which example was followed by the rest.

From the temple we returned to the treasurer's, where a number of Lamas assembled after the sacrifice was ended. We conversed chiefly with a Lama of the name of Tschen, who is in the personal service of the Kutuchta, whom we had seen to-day. Tschen Lama is about forty-two years old, descended from a distinguished family among the Eastern Mongols, and was educated at Peking; he had travelled through the whole of Tibet and Mongolia, and the northern provinces of India bordering on Tibet, and converses fluently in the Chinese, Mongol, Tibetan, and has some knowledge of the Mantchoo language. He enquired about our journey, Russia and its capital, our birth places, &c. On his part he told us very candidly that the emperor had the same influence over the temporal and over the

spiritual affairs of his extensive dominions; the Chubilgans and Kutuchtas are chosen by his command, and even the appointment of the Dalai Lama depends entirely on his power. Only the common people, especially the Tibetans and Mongols worship their high priests under the name of Kutuchta or Guga. The Chinese particularly value the moral precepts of Confucius and even those of Lo-udsu.

Tschen Lama told us that the Dalai Lama had not appeared, that is had not been installed in Tibet for five years; one of the priests there would have been chosen, but the late Emperor Kia-King required three candidates, and all out of the province of Sutchuen.—Does not perhaps the Chinese government dread the conquest of Tibet by the English; should these conquerors of Bengal take possession of a country so highly venerated by all professors of Lamaism, which would not be so difficult for them at present, the Dalai Lama would remain in their power; his worshippers, the Mongols, Kalmucks, and other nations might become true, and zealous allies of the English, and facilitate their farther conquests in Middle Asia. We know that the English missionaries who reside at Selenginsk in the government of Irkutsk, diligently study the Mongol language which is spoken by many

of the Tibetan Lamas. Of this we had a proof to-day: a Lama, a native of Lassa, the capital of Great Tibet, who had lately arrived at Pekin, spoke the Mongol quite fluently with Mr. Rasgildjew. He mentioned that persons sometimes came from Persia to Tibet who wore cloth dresses and long swords.

Some Tibetans, who reside in their convent, came to the Da Lama to see the Russians. When they saw me they exclaimed: this gentleman greatly resembles in the face the Indshili (English) who live at Lassa and other Tibetan towns; the same complexion and hair; the same dress and sword. This statement was farther confirmed by a merchant at Pekin, a native of Tibet, who is pretty well acquainted with Bengal and Calcutta. We learnt from them that the English now carry on a pretty considerable trade with Tibet, and exchange their cloths, knives, swords, &c. for gold, musk, turquoises, &c.

We likewise met there with a Mongol from Kukunor, who had come with one of the princes to Pekin, to compliment the new emperor on his accession. This Mongol called himself an Olut, that is a Kalmuck, in which sense the Mongols themselves adopt this name. The tribe of Olut (or Eluths) wander along the Blue Lake to the west of Pekin; the tract inhabited by them

abounds in wood and fine cattle; they cultivate chiefly millet, and also some barley, and wheat. He told me that their ancestors, about fifty years ago, under the conduct of one of their princes descended from Ajuka Khan, had emigrated to Kukunor from the banks of the Irtush which he called Erzi.

On our return from Chuan-sa we visited, in passing, the Russian burial ground. We cannot but regret that under the Archimandrite Schischkewski (who left Pekin in 1795, and died on the way to Kalgen) a large piece of land, belonging to the burying ground was ceded by a member of the mission to a Chinese, by which it is much diminished. The length of time that has elapsed, and the want of a plan of our land, confirmed by the Chinese government, would now make it very difficult to recover it.

PERSIAN MANNERS.

COLONEL DROUVILLE, a French officer in the service of the Emperor of Russia, published at St. Petersburg in 1819, an account of Persia, in which country he had resided three years. Only a few copies having been printed, and the price being exorbitant (300 rubles), the work remained nearly unknown, till a French bookseller reprinted it a few months ago, in two vols. 8vo. Colonel Drouville was attached to the person of Prince Abbas Mirza, the second son of the present emperor; and his intended successor. He seems to have had a principal share in organizing a considerable corps of troops in the European manner, and gives a very particular account of the actual formation of the Persian army. Though his book bears the title of *Voyage en Perse*, the author has almost entirely confined himself to manners, customs, ceremonies, &c., for which he gives in his preface the following reasons:—

“Several preceding travellers have published many particulars of the manners and ceremonies of the Persians, some of which are tolerably accurate. But most of them are founded only on conjectures, or on accounts destitute of authenticity; for instance, those which relate to the women of the higher classes: because a European, whatever be his rank, might live in Persia for years together, without, perhaps, being able to see the face of a single woman. To obtain some idea of the fair sex, a stranger must find means to be introduced into a harem, which is obtained with great difficulty, and very rarely. As for the information that may be obtained in conversation on this subject, I may affirm that no reliance can be placed on it, it being thought highly improper in Persia, to speak of women in company. Any question asked on this subject is not only unanswered, but even considered as an affront. A residence of three years in Persia would not have furnished me with more correct information, had not an intimate acquaintance with several persons of distinction procured me admission into various harems, especially those of the family of Asker Khan, late ambassador from Persia to France. I occupied for six months a part of the house of that respectable old man, who

always treated me according to our customs, which he had adopted; and it was not often that many days together passed, without his taking me to visit the ladies of his family. This, which was at first a mere politeness, at length became a habit, so that in a short time, I was as free to visit them as if they had been European ladies; and, notwithstanding the well merited reputation of the orientals for jealousy, I never perceived that my friends took the least umbrage at my assiduities."

We shall make a few extracts from those parts of Mr. Drouville's work, which we judge the most likely to interest our readers.

The Persians are tall, strong, well-made, and of a tawny complexion. Their features are regular, and their general physiognomy does not appear to have any foreign mixture, notwithstanding the great number of Tartars and Indians who have repeopled this country, at various periods. Their costume differs from that of all the other nations of the east. Instead of wearing wide and convenient dresses, like the other Asiatic nations, the Persians are particularly careful that their's shall distinctly shew the form of the body and arms. Their head-dress is very different from that described

by Chardin, the fashions having entirely changed since the visit of that celebrated traveller.

The men are generally dressed in long robes, fitting close, as far as the hips, where they grow wider, and descend to the heels in the form of those which were worn by our ladies in the 16th century. Under this they wear a kind of waistcoat made of quilted calico, and very long, which leaves the breast uncovered, though it is wholly concealed by the robe when they are dressed. Their shirts are short, made of silk of different colours, without collars, open on the right side, and edged with a little silk lace of some glaring colour.

They wear very wide pantaloons of pink or crimson taffety, which come down to the instep, where they are wider than above the leg. They have no stockings, but wear socks, woven almost like their carpets.

They walk about the town in shagreen slippers, such as the French ladies wore thirty years ago. The poor who are obliged to walk a great deal, wear a kind of buskins, (or boots) the feet of which are long and pointed at the toes, like Chinese slippers. When they ride on horseback they wear strong boots of Bulgarian leather, which reach above the knee, where they

terminate in a point. The heels are still higher and more inconvenient than those of our hussar boots ; and they would find it very troublesome to walk ten minutes in them.

They keep till a certain age a part of their hair, that is to say, they shave their heads the whole breadth of the forehead to the nape of the neck, so that the two temples only retain the hair. The young men wear two large curls before and behind the ears, which fall upon their shoulders. They wear them till 45 or 50 years of age, when they make the beard the chief ornament of their countenance, taking great pains to dress and dye it black once a week ; for there is such a rage in Persia for black hair and beards, that we never see any grey, and still less white, unless it be in some priests, who leave it so to have a more venerable appearance.

The Persians wear shawls round the waist as a girdle, and it is often by this ornament and by the knife which is attached to it, that an idea may be formed of the rank or fortune of the wearer. The ordinary class have it of common woollen or calico, whereas the nobler and the rich always have them of cachemire, and attach to them straight knives, enriched with carved work or precious stones, the sheaths of which, made of light and fragrant wood, are covered

with black shagreen. The crooked Kangiars are worn by people of the middling class, and those called Georgian by the common people and soldiers. During winter the Persians wear long great coats made of slips of sheep-skin, the wool of which is six inches long. These great coats, which they call *Kureks*, are excessively warm. They also make use of another sort of great coat, made nearly like what the French call a *Chenille*. This is also a dress of ceremony and etiquette for all seasons, for you cannot appear at court, or in the houses of the great, without it. The most distinguished are made of scarlet cloth, but it is not every body that is entitled to wear that colour, which is confined to the princes, nobles, and officers of high rank: the other classes wear them of blue, green, or brown. Rich people, as well as their wives, wear in the very cold weather, beautiful furs, which they procure at a great expense from Astrachan. The men of the lower class have in winter only a short waistcoat, lined with sheep-skin, which they leave open before, and the sleeves of which reach only half way down the arms.

The Persian women are indisputably the most beautiful in the world, and notwithstand-

nately to sing and to play. The orchestra was placed apart; they played on wind-instruments, copper cymbals of various sizes, and drums; this kind of music is more calculated to inspire terror than feeling and emotion. The yellow dress of the Lamas, and their shorn heads, gave them in our eyes a singular appearance. There were no worshippers of Fo present, except priests. The Kutuchta, who was about thirty-five years old, several times turned his eyes upon us, which example was followed by the rest.

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turn yellow, even at an advanced age ; their chin is small, with a little dimple, which is very suitable to the turn of their countenance, and gives it an additional charm. If I were inclined, however, to find any fault with them, it would be that their faces are too round, which is considered as the highest degree of beauty in this country : the Persian poets, speaking of handsome faces, always compare them to the full moon. They have almost all of them another defect, which I ascribe to their confined life ; this is an habitual paleness ; but they give themselves a colour in such a simple manner, that it is difficult for the most skilful eye to discover whether they are indebted for it, to nature or art. Those women who are obliged to have recourse to it, employ soap of a peculiar composition, known only in this country, which they use in the following manner.

After having well washed the face, and wiped it with very fine linen, they rub gently with a piece of cachemire, to stimulate the skin, and render it susceptible of absorption : they then pass over it two or three times, this soap, quite dry, and afterwards rub it lightly with the same cachemire ; which is sufficient to produce such a brilliant and transparent colour, that it is easy to be deceived by it, and to believe it natural.

This soap, whatever use is made of it, never injures the skin, and always produces the same effect.

The Persian women appear to pay little regard to their breasts, though very handsome,* but they take great care of their arms, and particularly of their hands. They tinge them from time to time with the drug called Henne, and thus render them soft, smooth, plump, and white as ivory.

The Georgian women are undoubtedly very beautiful, and taller than the Persians; but are far from approaching their grace and elegance: their faces are rather long, or even thin; they are not so slender as the Persians, which I attribute to their great non-chalance, and to certain ideas of decorum, which hinder them, whatever may happen, from making one step longer or quicker than another.

Their great reputation for beauty, is partly founded on their complexion, which, is, in fact, fine, but is seldom entirely their own. I would venture to affirm, that of a hundred Georgian women, who are reputed beautiful, there are eighty covered with red and white;

* They do not know the use of stays; yet they remain very graceful till past the age of thirty.

a species of coquetry, which extends even to women of the lowest class, who would not go out of the house, without being plastered in this manner. At the distance of forty or fifty steps, or by candle-light, they appear, perhaps, more brilliant than the Persian ladies; but approaching them destroys the illusion; which is sometimes so palpable, that I cannot conceive why these ladies do not lay on in a better manner, the colours with which they load their faces; and which are sometimes so thick, that they fall off in scales, like stucco from a wall. One would be tempted to believe that they take as much pains to shew their borrowed colours, as our ladies do to conceal them. Add to this, that red hair and eye-brows being most esteemed in Georgia, they give them that colour, which, in my opinion, is very disagreeable.

If their eyes are not so large as those of the Persian ladies, they are, nevertheless, well proportioned, of a beautiful black, and having a pleasing languor in them. The nose is well formed, but rather long, which is the case with the men also in Georgia. Their mouth is very beautiful, and ornamented with the finest teeth. As for their hair, as they shew only two locks, I shall not speak of it, nor of their forehead, which is for the most part concealed by a large

bandeau. These women are very mild, and very affectionate, capable of durable attachment, endowed with rare patience, and very precocious, being often married at eleven years of age, and mothers at twelve.

The beauty of the Circassians chiefly consists in the symmetry of their form, and the elegance of their shape: the features of their face, are, however, superb. They nearly resemble those of the Georgians, only being extremely fair, they have no need to load themselves with paint. Their eyes are black, and extremely lively: they are tall, well made, but rather robust, and are, above all, remarkable for the beauty of the breast, which their magnificent costume shews to great advantage.

The Persian women are distinguished by an angelic sweetness of temper, and a rare equanimity, virtues which may be considered as the consequence of their education, which condemns them not only to perpetual confinement, and to be almost strangers to maternal affection, but also to be sacrificed, when they are hardly marriageable, to the interest, or caprice, of their parents, who, even in the higher classes, consider their daughters as objects of speculation, selling or marrying, or giving them to

some great person, or to the sovereign, to obtain their favour.

The dress of the Persian women is very unbecoming, and, except their head-dress, which is handsome, I know nothing more ridiculous than their costume. The head-dress consists of a turban made of a cachemere shawl, which they make up in a very ingenious manner, and adorn with pearls, and all kinds of jewels. They form their hair into thirty or forty little tresses, half of which they tie on the top of the head, and round the turban, letting the remainder hang down behind with the ends of the shawl, which also fall in a very elegant manner. Two very long curls fall on each side, down to the bosom, which admirably suits the head-dress, and adds to its gracefulness.

The rage for jewels is such among the Persian women, that I do not believe there is one who does not possess some; the poorest artisan is often obliged to deny himself necessities, to give some to his wife, if he wishes to have peace in his house. The ladies of quality have jewels to an excessive value; there is certainly not one, who, besides five or six complete sets, of very great value, has not a dozen pair of bracelets, rings for every finger, pearls of all sizes to

adorn her turbans, besides a quantity of buttons, clasps, &c. &c. all extremely rich. Their chemises are very short, without collars, but open at the middle of the breast, and fastened at the neck with a gold button, set with pearls, or precious stones ; they are generally made of very fine embroidered muslin, with two or three rows of small pearls round the neck. They wear over them large waistcoats, called Arkala, generally made of quilted satin, which conceal their habits. Those called Chapkins, are, perhaps, the most indecorous and most ridiculous things ever invented for the dress of women ; these are a kind of tunics, without collars, open before, so as to shew the whole breast ; they are fastened with three buttons, half an inch from each other, placed on a level with the hips. These are marked by enormous gussets, which contribute to make them appear much broader than they really are. Below these buttons the Chapkin crosses from left to right, by long lappets, which are a prolongation of the left flaps, and are fastened to buttons, placed at the distance of an inch from the right hip.

The length of these garments has greatly changed ; if we judge by pictures representing the antient costumes of the ladies of Persia, they must have come down to the heels ; but fashion

gradually shortening them, has at length reduced them to a kind of waistcoat, which does not cover the knees. They are very rich, made of the very finest gold brocade. Sometimes they are adorned with elegant embroidery, and frequently covered with pearls and diamonds.

The women's pantaloons are made the same as those of men, and differ only in the materials: they are of brocade, or of silk embroidered with gold or silver, and often with pearls. They have also the peculiarity of being wadded in so ridiculous a manner, as to give the legs the appearance of two shapeless columns; but fashion and custom justify every thing, and the more swelled they are, the more decent they are accounted.

The Persian ladies wear velvet slippers, embroidered with gold or silk. When they go out, they wrap themselves up in an enormous piece of cloth, which hangs down to the ground, and is called *Chadera* (which signifies tent); and this kind of cloak is of white calico, cut in the form of a semi-circle. They fasten it to the head and neck by means of strings sewed in the inside. Besides this, they cover the face with a veil, called *Roubend*. This is a piece of calico, of an oblong form, which is fastened to the head by two gold clasps, fixed at the two upper corners, and which they place on the

sides of the turban, at the height of the temples. Before the eyes there is a transverse opening, two inches in length, which is closed by a tissue like net or lace, and through which they see. They must never lift this veil, out of the house, under any pretext whatever, and it is very rarely that they break through this tyrannical custom. They never go out without putting on large buskins, which cover the pantaloons below the knee, so that of all their brilliant costume, nothing is to be seen but the slippers: it is, therefore, only from their greater or less degree of splendour, and the fineness of the Chadera, and Roubend, that you can guess the rank of the women you meet.

The women of the lower class, who are a little less scrupulous, do not make much use of veils of this description: they have narrow chaderas of calico, striped blue and white, which they turn up in a peculiar manner above the hips; then, with the right hand, they bring a part of it before the face, so as to leave only the line across the eyes uncovered. But when they perceive a stranger, they cover themselves in such a manner, that it is impossible to judge of the colour or the size of their eyes.

The public baths are the grand rendezvous of the women, where they visit each other; each

niche has its society, and it is always full. It is there that they discuss all their family affairs, and as there are few of them who have not some grounds for jealousy, and consequently reasons for complaint, it may be said that this is a female tribunal, at which the aged preside, who decide, in the last instance, on the transgressions to which their jurisdiction extends. First of all they confide to each other every thing that has happened to them since their last interview, relate whether their husbands have been more or less tender, or if they have shewn any inclination to some other of their wives, or slaves. The neglected fair ones revenge themselves on their fortunate rivals, by portraits which vexation has dictated, and in which the resemblance is often not very scrupulously observed.

After having exhausted this subject, and mutually consoled each other for their misfortunes, they inquire into the marriages that are in contemplation, which gives an opportunity to institute a rigorous scrutiny into the characters of the intended brides. If I may judge by accounts, which appeared to me sincere, they touch lightly on the good qualities, and dwell with complaisance on the defects. In the art of slander and calumny, the Persian ladies would have nothing to learn among us, and

Mussulman charity, is, in this respect, on a level with the Christian charity of our most determined gossips.

The harems are detached edifices, surrounded by very high walls, in which the women and children reside: but it would be a great mistake to infer, as some persons imagine, that they resemble prisons.

The harems of the rich may be compared to a real terrestrial paradise; for, besides that they possess in them a great number of handsome women, who all emulate each other to please them, they unite in them every thing useful and agreeable, that the most refined luxury can procure. The harems are separated from the buildings inhabited by the men, by long court-yards, and they are generally adorned in the interior with fine gardens, or, more properly speaking, beds of flowers, in which roses and tulips predominate, the latter of which are particularly esteemed in Persia. These gardens are shaded by a great quantity of fruit trees, which are very thick, and produce excellent fruit. The harems are very extensive, and well arranged. Each woman has her own separate chamber; then come the apartments of the children, who are generally very numerous; those of the slaves, the kitchens, the bake-house,

the larder, store-rooms, baths and bed-rooms of the masters.

It is in the harems, and really there only, that the Persians may be said to be at home, and free. It is there, that, in the bosom of their family, they lay aside that gravity, which rarely forsakes them in the divan, where they are always armed with the most rigorous etiquette towards their inferiors, and a cold reserve towards their equals ; which is the result of their mutual distrust of each other.

When the Persians have no guests of distinction in their houses, they take their meals in the harems with their wives and children, but still, however, apart, and if they do admit any body to partake of their repast, this honour is reserved only to the first of their wives. Like the other Orientals, they have as many wives as they can maintain (though the Koran allows them only four), besides young female slaves, whom they purchase, and who quit the apparent state of slavery from the moment they have shared the bed of their master ; they are even admitted to the rank of subaltern wives, if they have had the good fortune to bear them children.

All the legitimate wives have a certain rank among themselves ; and beginning with the first, all shew each other a certain respect : they are

even obliged to perform some slight services to those who are above them, which the latter never fail to exact in the presence of strangers, in order to let them know the superiority they enjoy. The female slaves are all charged with some particular duties in the service of the harem, besides their obligations towards each of the mistresses to whom they are attached, and whom they serve as *femmes de chambre*, bathers, singers, and dancers. Those who have particular talents in the two last, are sometimes chosen to amuse the master. On these occasions, they never fail to display all their graces, and to practice such attitudes as are the most likely to attract his attention, in order to make a conquest of him. They pretty often succeed, to the great despair of their mistresses, who are for the most part forsaken for them.

The Persian ladies are very ignorant; the custom is to teach them nothing, not even to read, and still less to sew: the exceptions to this rule are very rare. I should find it very difficult to speak of their occupations; and till the time when they become mothers, I know of none they have, except their toilet, which, though not so complex as that of our ladies, takes them however a great deal of time. They generally pass the remainder of the day seated on

very fine carpets at the windows, before which there are pieces of water. They smoke the calliau, drink coffee, and pay or receive visits, till the cool of the evening, of which they take advantage to go and walk in the gardens out of the city, where they often remain till night-fall. Very erroneous notions are entertained in Europe respecting the degree of liberty enjoyed by the Persian ladies; I am not acquainted with any other^d country in which they are more mistresses of their actions. When they become mothers, there are few who fulfil their duties with more strictness; they never leave to strangers the care of suckling, attending, and bringing up their children, who remain in their hands, and under their particular care, till the age of eleven or twelve years, at which time the boys leave the harem to be circumcised, and the girls to be married, given away, or sold. The ladies sometimes go to the bazaars, either to make purchases or to meet their female friends; but the women of the lower classes swarm in them, and often remain there from morning till evening: they visit all the shops to pick up news, by relating which, they make themselves of importance to the ladies of rank, whose emissaries they frequently are.

The Persian women have a peculiar talent in

recognizing each other at a great distance, though they are veiled from head to foot ; it is astonishing that, in addressing each other, they are sure never to be mistaken, while the men often pass close to their own wives without knowing them.

OF BETROTHING AND MARRIAGES.—The marriages in Persia are not the least curious and extraordinary ceremonies in the eyes of Europeans. For it is very rare for the parties interested to arrange the marriage themselves: these affairs are always negotiated by old women, who have hardly any other employment in Persia. When a family think of marrying a young man, his mother, aunt, or some other woman, visits all the harems till she has found the person whom she supposes will please him the most ; and as the future bridegroom can never see her, they give him a description of her, which is never exaggerated either in favour or otherwise, for fear of reproaches in the sequel. If the marriage should be broken off on this account, the anger of both families would fall on those female negotiators, which renders them very circumspect. If the description of the person pleases the young man, and he decides in her favour, the parents meet and regulate the interests of the young couple. The intended husband gives a

certain sum, which becomes at all events the portion of the woman. As for all articles connected with the toilet and the nuptial bed, they are provided by the mother of the bride. The time for the betrothing is then fixed, and all the acquaintances are invited to come on a certain day and hour, to be present at the ceremony, which consists in presenting the young man to all the company, and announcing that he has that day given his word to such a young woman, and the day for the marriage is fixed. After a collation of fruits, sweetmeats, and sherbet, musicians, singers, and dancers are introduced, and this little fête generally lasts till night.

The mother of the young lady gives a similar fête to the ladies of her acquaintance in her harem, where she also has public female singers and dancers, who never perform except in these places, and only before women; at least, this is the case at present, for it seems that in the times of Chardin, they led a very dissipated life, which, like many other things, has much changed since.

After this kind of ceremony, some months, and often even years, pass; for in great families, children are betrothed when they are four or five years of age. When the time is come, and the day for the wedding fixed, the bride pro-

poses her final conditions to her intended before giving her consent: they generally consist in demands of dresses, shawls, jewels, slaves, and often even money and lands. Whether the husband grants, modifies, or refuses, it is almost always certain, that this will not break off his marriage, the woman having no will whatever in this case, and making demands of this kind only in compliance with antient customs, which every day lose much of their influence; it is even rarely that any attention is paid to the ungallant messages, in which the brides ask much to obtain a little; and they sometimes esteem themselves very happy at not being totally refused. If they will not desist, the men give what is demanded of them, but make the woman return it when she enters the harem. She would not venture to refuse, for fear of being sent back to her family.

When the wedding-day is come, the young man, accompanied by his relations and a Mollah, repairs to the court-yard of the harem of his bride, who, behind the blinds of her window, and without being seen, is asked by the priest if she accepts for her husband the man whom she sees before her; on her replying in the affirmative, the same question is put to the young man, who accepts, without having seen,

her who has consented to give him her hand. Then the priest pronounces the sacramental words of union, which completes the ceremony, and the husband is at liberty to fix the day when he will come and fetch his wife, which however he never does in less than a month. On the day appointed, he assembles all his friends, who, to the number of a hundred or a hundred and fifty, mount their horses, armed cap-a-pee ; several women also mount on horseback, and lead a horse richly caparisoned for the bride ; two hours before sun-set all this cavalcade, preceded by musicians, singers, and dancers, repairs to the abode of the bride, making, as they go along, frequent discharges of musketry. The husband, as soon as he arrives, looks everywhere for his wife, who must be well concealed : at length he finds her, but veiled ; then a kind of struggle begins, he attempts to carry her away, to persuade her ; she refuses ; the more he urges, the more she resists ; it would be thought highly improper if she easily quitted her father's house : accordingly she cries out as if she were being murdered. The husband, finding all his entreaties of no avail, carries her off, in spite of the cries which custom prescribes, and places her on the horse prepared for her. The women surround

her, and all together follow the procession, which, always preceded by music and dancers, never repairs to the house of the husband till it has gone through the town. The bridegroom with his company enters the divan, while the bride is led to the harem. The diversions continue till the evening; then supper is served up, which often lasts till midnight. The guests then accompany the bridegroom to the door of his harem, wishing him all kinds of prosperity, and especially that the sight of his bride may not disgust him with her. The musicians, singers, and dancers, who have led the wedding procession, take up their quarters in the outer court-yards of the house, where they perform day and night, often for a week together. As long as this noisy melody continues, it is a proof that the fête is not finished, and the tables remain covered in the house of the bridegroom till the performers are discharged.

When the women are informed of the arrival of the bridegroom, they again cover the face of the bride, custom requiring that he shall remove her veil, and this is the first thing he does on entering the room; and as it is the first time he sees her, it is also the most critical moment for her. If she has not the good fortune to please him, he immediately goes out, without

saying a word ; and it is but too well known what this means : nothing is heard but lamentations, sobs, and cries, and she is immediately taken back to her parents. Her husband is obliged, in this case, to leave her the portion, the jewels, and the effects which he has given her. These events are now rare ; for there are few young men who have not by some means or other got a sight of their intended bride, either by stratagem, or that the latter, sure of their charms, unveil themselves, as by accident, in some solitary place, where their suitors are concealed by the contrivance of the old women.

If the bride pleases the bridegroom, he sits down by her, assures her that she will be always dear to him, and thanks the ladies who have accompanied her. The latter, seeing that the young couple are on good terms, soon leave them alone ; the female slaves make the bed, and all retire except the oldest, who assists the husband to induce the bride to go to bed, which she never consents to, till she has been intreated for several hours ; and as it would be a kind of libertinage to shew a readiness to yield to the wishes of her husband, there are young wives who refuse for months together.

ESSAY
ON THE POSSIBILITY OF EFFECTING
A NAVIGABLE COMMUNICATION
BETWEEN
The Atlantic and the Pacific Ocean.

BY BARON VON HUMBOLDT.

THE kingdom of New Spain, the most northerly point of Spanish America, extends from the sixteenth to the thirty-eighth degree of latitude. The length of this vast region from south-south-east to north-north-west is about 270 myriameters (610 common leagues); its greatest breadth is in the latitude of 30°. From the Red river in the province of Texas (Rio Colorado) to the island of Tiburon, on the coast of the province of La Sonora, is 364 leagues.


That part of Mexico in which the two oceans, the Atlantic and the Pacific are nearest to each other, is unfortunately not that in which the two ports of Acapulco and Vera Cruz, and the capital of Mexico, are situated. According to my astronomical obser-

vations, there is from Acapulco to Mexico an oblique distance of $2^{\circ} 40' 19''$ of a great circle (or 155,885 toises); from Mexico to Vera Cruz $2^{\circ} 57' 9''$ (or 158,572 toises); and from the port of Acapulco to the port of Vera Cruz, in a direct line, $4^{\circ} 10' 7''$. It is in these distances that the old maps are the most faulty. According to the observations published by Mr. Cassini, in the *Journal of Chappe's Voyage*, the distance from Mexico to Vera Cruz is stated to be $5^{\circ} 11'$ of longitude, instead of $2^{\circ} 57'$, which it has been found to be by more accurate observation. Assuming for Vera Cruz the longitude given by Chappe, and for Acapulco that of the map of the French *Depôt of the Marine*, compiled in 1784, the breadth of the isthmus of Mexico, between the two ports, would be 175 leagues, which is 71 leagues too much.

The isthmus of Tehuantepec, to the south-east of the port of Vera Cruz, is the part where the continent of New Spain is the narrowest; the distance being 45 leagues from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. The proximity of the sources of the rivers Huascualco and Chimalapa seems to favor the project of a canal for internal navigation, which was long meditated by Count Revillagigedo, one of the most intelligent and active of the viceroys. When we

describe the province of Oaxaca, we shall return to this subject so important to all civilized Europe. We will here content ourselves with considering the problem of the communication between the two rivers under the most general point of view. We shall present nine points which are not known in Europe, and all of which afford more or less easy means of facilitating navigation, either by canals, or by internal communications between the rivers. At a moment when the new continent, profiting by the misfortunes of Europe, and its perpetual dissensions, makes rapid progress in civilization; at a time when the commerce with China and the north-west coast of America becomes from year to year more advantageous, the subject, which we here treat in a summary manner, is highly interesting for the balance of commerce and the political preponderance of nations.

The nine points which I have marked in Plate IV. of my geographical and physical atlas, have at different periods attracted the attention of enlightened merchants and statesmen who have made a long stay in the colonies: they present very different advantages. We shall arrange them according to their geographical position, commencing with the most




northern part of the New Continent, and follow the coasts to the south of the isle of Chiloe. It is not till after we have examined *all* the projects here formed for the communication of the two oceans, that we shall be able to decide which deserves the preference. Previous to this examination, for which the correct materials are not yet collected, it would be imprudent to dig canals in the isthmuses of Huasacualco, of Nicaragua, of Panama, or of Cupica.

I. Under $54^{\circ} 37'$ north latitude, in the parallel of Queen Charlotte's Island, the sources of the river de la Paix or Ounigigah (Unjigah) approach within seven leagues the sources of the Tacoutché Tesse, which was supposed to be the same as the river Columbia. The first of these rivers empties itself into the Polar Sea, after having mingled its waters with those of Slave lake and Mackenzie river. The second river, the Columbia, falls into the Pacific ocean near Cape Disappointment, to the south of Nootka Sound, and, according to the celebrated Vancouver, in latitude $46^{\circ} 19'$. The Cordillera of the Rocky Mountains, abounding in coals, was found by Mr. Fiedler to be 3520 English feet above the level of the neighbouring plains.*

* If it is true that this chain of mountains enters the limits of perpetual snow (Mackenzie, Vol. III.

It separates the sources of the rivers Peace and Columbia. According to the account of Mackenzie, who crossed this chain in August 1793, the portage is tolerably practicable, and the mountains do not appear to be very elevated. To avoid the great detour which the Columbia makes, a shorter road for commerce might be opened from the sources of the Tacoutché Tesse as far as Salmon river, the mouth of which is to the east of Princess Royal Islands, in latitude $52^{\circ} 26'$. Mr. Mackenzie justly observes that a government which should open this communication between the two oceans, forming regular establishments in the interior of the country, and at the extremities of the rivers, would thereby become master of the whole fur trade of North-America, from the 48th degree of latitude to the pole, except that part of the coast which has long since been under the dominion of Russia. Canada, by the number and course of its rivers, affords facilities

p. 331) their absolute height must be at least from 1000 to 1100 toises; from whence it would result that the neighbouring plains, on which Mr. Fiedler was placed to take his measure, are from 450 to 550 toises above the level of the sea, or that the summits of which this traveller has marked the height are not the most elevated of the chain crossed by Mackenzie.



for inland trade similar to those which exist in Eastern Siberia. The mouth of the river Columbia seems to invite Europeans to establish a fine colony. The banks of this river are fertile, and covered with fine timber. It must be confessed, however, notwithstanding the examination made by Mr. Broughton, only a very small part of the Columbia is yet known, which, like the Severn and the Thames, appears to decrease extremely in breadth in proportion to the distance from the coast. Any geographer who will carefully compare the maps of Mackenzie with those of Vancouver will be surprised that the Columbia, descending from the Rocky Mountains which we are inclined to consider as a prolongation of the Andes of Mexico, can traverse the chain of mountains which approaches the great ocean, and the principal summits of which are mount St. Helen and mount Rainier. Mr. Malte Brun had already alleged important doubts against the identity of the Tacoutché Tessé and the Rio Columbia, before it was discovered, as it now is, that the Columbia or Oregon is entirely different from the Tacoutché Tessé or Fraser's river.

In latitude 50°, Nelson's river, the Saskashawan and the Missouri, which may be regarded as some of the principal branches of the Mississippi,

furnish equal facilities of communication with the Pacific ocean. All these rivers rise at the foot of the Rocky Mountains. We have not yet any sufficiently accurate data respecting the nature of the ground where the portage must be fixed, to decide on the utility of this communication. The expedition which Captain Lewis performed at the expence of the Anglo-American government on the Mississippi and Missouri, may throw great light on this interesting problem.

II. In latitude 40° , the sources of the Rio del Norte or Rio Bravo, which falls into the Gulph of Mexico, are separated from the sources of the Rio Colorado by a mountainous district of twelve or thirteen leagues in breadth. This tract is the continuation of the Cordillère des Grues, which extends towards Sierra Verde and the Lake of Timpanogos, celebrated in the history of Mexico. The Rio St. Raphael and the Rio St. Xavier are the principal sources of the river Zaguuananas, which, with the Rio Nabajoa, forms the Rio Colorada, and mingles its waters with those of the Gulph of California. The countries watered by these rivers abound in rock salt: they were examined in 1777 by Fathers Escalante and Antonia Velez, two monks of the order of Saint Francis. How-

ever interesting the Rio Zaguananas and the Rio del Norte may one day become to the inland commerce of this northern part of New Spain, and however easy the portage across the mountains may be, no communication will ever result from it affording advantages equal to those of a canal between the two oceans.

III. The isthmus of Tehuantepec, under the sixteenth degree of latitude, comprehends the sources of the Rio Huasacualco or Goazacualcos, which falls into the Gulph of Mexico, and the sources of the Rio Chimalapa. The waters of this latter river mingle with those of the Pacific ocean near the barra de San Francisco. I consider here the Rio del Pasco as the principal source of the river Huasacualco, though the latter does not take its name till it reaches the Passo de la Fabrica, after one of its arms, which comes from the mountains de los Mixes, has joined the Rio del Passo. This isthmus of Tehuantepec is the point which Ferdinand Cortes, in his letters to the Emperor Charles V. calls the secret of the strait, an appellation which sufficiently proves the importance attached to it at the commencement of the sixteenth century. It has again attracted the attention of navigators since the hostilities carried on by the castle of San Juan d'Uloa

have caused the commerce of Vera Cruz to turn to the Barra d'Alvarado and to the coast of Tabasco, near the mouth of the Rio Huasacualco. The ridge, which forms the division of the water between the two oceans, is interrupted by a valley; but I much doubt whether in the time of the great inundations this valley is filled (as has been lately stated) with a quantity of water sufficient to allow a natural passage for the boats of the natives. Similar temporary communications exist between the basins of the Mississippi and the river Saint Lawrence, that is to say between Lake Erié and the Wabash, between Lake Michigan and the river of the Illinois. We shall return in the sequel to the possibility of digging a canal, six or seven leagues long, in the forests of Tarifa.* Since a road was opened in 1798 from the port of Tehuantepec to the Embarcadero de la Cruz (which road was improved in 1800), the river Huasacualco forms a commercial communication between the two oceans. During the war with the English, the indigo of Guatemala, the most

* The Spanish Cortes decreed the opening of this canal in 1814. The execution of the canal was confided to the Consulado de Guadalaxara, who proposed to issue an invitation to the capitalists of Europe.

valuable known, came by this isthmus to the port of Vera Cruz, and thence to Europe.

IV. The great Lake of Nicaragua communicates not only with the Lake of Leon, but also on the east, by the river San Juan, with the sea of the Antilles. The communication with the Pacific ocean would be effected by digging a canal across the isthmus which separates the lake from the gulph of Papagayo. On this narrow isthmus are the volcanic and insulated summits of Bombacho (in latitude $11^{\circ} 7'$) of Grenada and Papagayo (in latitude $10^{\circ} 50'$). Old maps even indicate a communication by water across the isthmus. Other maps, rather more recent, represent a river, under the name of the Rio Partido, one of the branches of which flows into the Pacific and the other into the lake Nicaragua. But this bifurcation seems very uncertain. It is not noticed in the latest maps published by the Spaniards and the English.

In the archives of Madrid are several French and English Memoirs on the possibility of uniting lake Nicaragua with the Pacific ocean. The commerce, which the English carry on, on the Mosquito shore, has greatly contributed to give celebrity to this project of making a communication between the two seas. None of

these memoirs which have come to my knowledge clear up the principal point, which is the elevation of the ground of the isthmus.

From the kingdom of New Grenada to the environs of the capital of Mexico, there is not a single mountain, plateau, or town, the elevation of which above the surface of the sea is known to us. Is there an uninterrupted chain of mountains in the provinces of Vera-gua and Nicaragua? Has this range, which is supposed to connect the Andes of Peru with the mountains of Mexico, its central chain to the east or the west of the Lake Nicaragua? Does the isthmus of Papagayo offer a mountainous soil, or only a simple barrier? These are problems, the solution of which is as interesting to the statesman as to the geographer. The various works which have been published since the commencement of the wars for the independence of Spanish America confine themselves to the same ideas developed in the first edition of this work; I except some useful information which Mr. Davis Robinson has given on the bar of the river of San Juan de Nicaragua. He assures us that "this bar has twelve feet of water, and that on one point only it has a narrow pass, twenty-five feet in depth." In the Rio de San Juan itself there are from four to

six fathoms ; in the lake Nicaragua from three to eight fathoms. According to Mr. Robinson the San Juan is navigable for brigs and schooners.

There is not a spot upon the globe so full of volcānoes as this part of America, from latitude 11° to 13° ; but it seems that the trachytic mountains, through which the subterraneous fire makes its way, forms only insulated groups, and that, separated from each other by vallies, they rise from the plain itself. It must not excite surprise that we were ignorant of facts of this importance, for we shall soon see that even the height of the chain which traverses the isthmus of Panama is as little known now as it was before the invention of the barometer, and the application of that instrument in the measurement of mountains. Perhaps too a communication between lake Nicaragua and the Pacific ocean might be made by lake Leon, by means of the river Tosta, which descends from the volcano of Telica, on the road from Leon to Realexo. In fact the ground does not seem very high, and Dampier's account of his voyage may infer that there is not a real chain of mountains between Lake Nicaragua and the South Sea. "The coast of Nicoya," says this great navigator, "is low, and overflowed at the time of high water. Between Realexo and

Leon you traverse a flat country, covered with Mango trees." The city of Leon itself is situated in a savannah. There is a small river, which falling into the sea near Realexo, might facilitate the communication between that port and Leon. From the western bank of the lake Nicaragua, it is only four leagues to the bottom of the gulph of Papagayo, and seven to that of Nicoya, which navigators call Caldera. Dampier expressly says that the ground between La Caldera and the lake is not very hilly, and for the most part a level plain.

The isthmus of Nicaragua, by the position of its inland lake, and the communication between this lake and the sea of the Antilles by means of the Rio San Juan, has many features of resemblance with the defile in the Highlands of Scotland, where the river Ness forms a natural communication between the mountain lakes and the gulph of Murray. At Nicaragua, as in the Highlands, there is to the west merely a barrier to pass; to the east it would perhaps be sufficient to *canalize* the Rio San Juan, without deviating from the bed of the river, which has no bars except in the dry season. If it is true that the isthmus to be crossed has a few hills where it is the narrowest, between the western bank of the Nicaragua, and the gulph of Papa-

gayo, it is on the other hand formed of uninterrupted savannahs and plains, affording an excellent road for carriages, between the city of Leon and the coast of Realexo. It is the high road by which merchandise is sent from Guatemala to Leon, landing in the gulph of Fonseca or Amalapa, to the port of Conchagua. The elevation of Lake Nicaragua above the South Sea is equal to the fall of the Rio San Juan in the course of thirty leagues: accordingly the elevation of this basin is so well known in the country that it was formerly regarded as an insurmountable obstacle to the execution of a canal. It was apprehended that it might cause either an impetuous overflow towards the west, or a diminution of the water of the San Juan, which, during the dry season, has, above the antient castillo de San Carlos, several rapids, and the banks of which, during their present uncultivated state, are extremely unwholesome. The art of the civil engineer is, however, sufficiently advanced in our days not to fear such dangers. The lake of Nicaragua may serve as the upper basin, as lake Oich on the Caledonian canal. Regulating sluices will admit into the canal only sufficient water to feed it. The small difference of level supposed to exist between the sea of the Antilles and the Pacific ocean, probably

arises only from the unequal height of the tides. A similar difference is observed between the two seas which are united by the great Caledonian canal, and were it even six toises and permanent, as that between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, it would be no less favourable to a junction between the oceans. The winds blow strong enough on lake Nicaragua to save the necessity of towing by steam-boats the vessels which are to pass from one sea to the other ; but the employment of steam would be very useful in voyages from Realexo or from Panama to Guayaquil. During the months of August, September, and October, calms are alternate in these seas, with a wind blowing in a contrary direction to this voyage.

The coasts of Nicaragua are rather dangerous in the months of August, September, and October, on account of the winds and terrible rain ; in January and February, on account of the violent north-east and east north-east winds, which are called by the name of Papagayos. This circumstance renders navigation very inconvenient. The port of Tehuantepec, in the isthmus of Huasacualco, is not more favoured by nature ; it gives its name to the hurricanes which blow from the north-west, and which make all vessels fly from the little ports of

Sabinas and Ventosa. It results from the above considerations that the possibility of the canal of Nicaragua is threefold, namely, from that lake to the gulph Papagayo, from the same to the gulph of Nicoya, or from the lake of Leon or Managua to the mouth of the Rio de Tosta. The distance from the south-eastern extremity of the lake of Nicaragua to the gulph of Nicoya is very differently laid down (from 25 to 48 miles) in Arrowsmith's map of south America, and the fine map in the Deposito Hidrografico at Madrid, which is called *Mar de las Antillas*, 1809.

V. The isthmus of Panama was crossed for the first time by Vasco Nunez de Balbo, in the year 1513. Since this memorable epoch in the history of geographical discoveries, the project of a canal has been a very general subject of consideration ; yet even now, after the lapse of three centuries, there is no survey of the ground, nor any very correct determination of the exact position of Panama and Portobello. The longitude of the first of these two ports has been referred from Carthagena ; that of the second has been determined from Guayaquil. The operations of Fidalgo and Malaspina are doubtless entitled to great confidence : but errors multiply insensibly when by chronometrical operations which embrace the whole coast of the

Terra Firma, from the isle of Trinidad to Portobello, and from Lima to Panama, one position is made dependent upon another. To form an idea of the uncertainty which still prevails respecting the shape and breadth of the isthmus (for example at Nata) we need only compare the maps of Lopez with those of Arrowsmith and the most recent ones of the Deposito Hidrografico at Madrid. The river Chagre, which falls into the sea of the Antilles to the west of Portobello, notwithstanding its sinuosities and rapids, presents many advantages to commerce; it is 120 toises broad at its mouth, and 20 near Cruces, where it begins to be navigable. At present, ships ascend the Rio Chagre from its mouth to Cruces, in four or five days. If the water is very high, they must contend against the current for ten or twelve days. From Cruces to Panama the goods are conveyed on mules for five short leagues. The barometrical measurements given in Ulloa's travels induce me to suppose that there is in the Rio Chagre a difference of level of thirty-five to forty toises between the sea of the Antilles and the Embarcadero or Venta de Cruces. This difference must appear very small to those who have ascended the Rio Chagre; they forget that the strength of the current depends both on the great

accumulation of water near the sources, and on the general fall of the river, that is to say above Cruces. On comparing the barometrical level of Ulloa with that which I made in the river Magdalena, we perceive that the elevation of Cruces above the ocean, far from being small, is on the contrary very great. The fall of the Rio Magdalena from Honda to the dike of Mahates near Barancas is 160 toises, and yet this distance is not, as might be expected, four times, but eight times greater than from Cruces to Fort Chagre.

The engineers who have proposed at the court of Madrid to establish a communication between the two oceans by the Rio Chagre have projected the digging of a canal from the Venta de Cruces to Panama. This canal would have to pass through a mountainous tract, with the elevation of which we are entirely ignorant. We only know that from Cruces there is first a rapid ascent and then a descent for several hours towards the coasts of the South Sea. It is very surprising that neither La Condamine and Bonguer, nor Don George Juan and Ulloa, had the curiosity, when they crossed the isthmus, to look at their barometers, to inform us what is the elevation of the highest point on the road from Fort Chagre to Panama. These gentle-

men remained three months in this region which is so interesting to the commercial world ; but their long stay has hardly added any thing to the observations of Dampier and Wafer. It seems indubitable that the principal chain, or rather range of hills, which may be considered as a prolongation of the Andes of New Grenada, is, between Cruces and Panama, nearer to the South Sea than to the sea of the Antilles. It is from the summit of this range that persons have pretended to see the two oceans at once, an observation which would not imply an absolute elevation of more than 290 metres. Lionel Wafer complains that he could not enjoy this spectacle ; and he assures us that the hills, which form the central chain, are separated from each other by vallics, which leave a free course for the rivers. If the last assertion be correct, we may believe in the possibility of a canal from Cruces to Panama, the navigation of which would be interrupted by only very few sluices.

From some slight indications of the temperature of these places, and the geography of the indigenous plants, I should be inclined to believe that the barrier in the road from Panama to Cruces does not attain an elevation of 500 feet. Mr. Robinson supposes it to be 400 feet at the most ; besides, we find in almost

all mountainous countries, when carefully examined, instances of natural openings across the barriers. The hills between the basins of the Saone and the Loire, which the canal of the Centre would have had to pass, were 800 to 900 feet high, but a defile or interruption at the pond of Long Pendu presented a ledge which is 350 feet lower.

There exist other points in which, according to memoirs drawn up in 1528, it has been proposed to cut through the isthmus, namely, by joining the sources of the rivers called Caimito and Rio Grande, with the Rio Trinidad. The eastern part of the isthmus is narrower, but the ground seems to be much more elevated. At least this is what we observe in the horrible road taken by the mail from Portobello to Panama. This road is two days' journey, passes by the village of Pequeni, and presents very great difficulties.

In all ages and in all climates, people have believed that of two neighbouring seas, one was higher than the other. Traces of this vulgar opinion are found in the antient writers. Strabo says that it was supposed that the level of the gulph of Corinth near Lechoea was above that of the waters of the gulph of Cenchræa. He imagined that it would be very dangerous to

cut through the isthmus, where the Corinthians, by the aid of particular machines, had established a *portage*. In the isthmus of Panama it is commonly supposed that the South Sea is more elevated than the Sea of the Antilles. This opinion is founded on a bare appearance. After having contended several-days against the current of the Rio Chagre, we think we have ascended, much more than we afterwards descend, the hills from Cruces to Panama. In fact, nothing is more deceitful than the opinion which we form, of a difference of level upon a long slope, which consequently is very gentle. In Peru I could hardly believe my eyes when I found by my barometer that the city of Lima is 91 toises above the port of Callao. The rock of the Isle of San Lorenzo must be entirely covered with water, in consequence of an earthquake, before the ocean could reach the capital of Peru. Don George Juan has already combatted the opinion of a difference of level between the two seas; he found the height of the mercury to be the same at the mouth of the Chagre and at Panama.

The imperfection of the meteorological instruments used at that time, may leave some doubts which even appear to have acquired more weight since the French engineers attached to the ex-

pedition in Egypt found the level of the Red Sea to be six toises above the Mediterranean. Till a geometrical survey shall have been made of the level of the isthmus of Panama, we must have recourse to barometrical admeasurements. Those which I made at the mouth of the Rio Sinu in the Sea of the Antilles and on the Peruvian coasts of the South Sea, prove, after every correction has been made for the temperature, that if there exists a difference of level between the two oceans, it cannot be above six or seven metres.

The navigation of the Rio Chagre is difficult, not so much on account of the number of its sinuosities as of the celerity of its current, which is often one or two metres per second. The sinuosities however afford the advantage of a counter-current, which is formed by eddies towards the banks, and by means of which, small vessels, called Bongos and Chatas, ascend, either by means of oars and poles, or by towing. If these sinuosities were cut through, the advantage would cease, and it would be very difficult to go from the Sea of the Antilles to Cruces.

The minimum of the breadth of the isthmus of Panama is not fifteen miles, as marked by the first maps of the Deposito Hidrografico at

Madrid, but $25\frac{1}{2}$ miles, that is to say, $8\frac{1}{2}$ sea leagues, or 24,580 toises; for the dimensions of the gulph of San Blas, called also Ensenada de Mandinga, on account of the small river which falls into it, have given rise to serious errors. This gulph enters seventeen miles less into the continent than was supposed in 1805, in the survey of the Mulatto Islands. Whatever confidence the last astronomical observations seem to merit, on which the map of the isthmus, published by the Deposito Hidrografico in 1817 is founded, it must not be forgotten that these operations comprehend only the Northern Coast, and that they have not yet been connected either by a series of triangles or chronometrically with the southern coasts. Now the problem of the breadth of the isthmus does not depend on the determination of the latitudes alone.

From the whole of the information which I was able to procure during my stay at Carthagena and Guayaquil, it seems that we must give up all hopes of a canal seven metres in depth, and from 22 to 28 in breadth, which should traverse the isthmus of Panama from sea to sea, and receive the same vessels that trade between Europe and the East-Indies. The elevation of the ground would oblige the engineer to have recourse to subterraneous gal-

leries, or to sluices; consequently, the merchandize intended to pass the isthmus of Panama, must be conveyed in flat-bottomed boats, incapable of keeping the sea. Depôts would be necessary at Panama and Portobello. All nations which should desire to carry on trade by this way, would become dependent on the nation who should be mistress of the isthmus and the canal. This inconvenience would be very great, particularly for vessels dispatched from Europe. Even in case the canal should be dug, it is probable that the greater number of ships, fearing the delays caused by the numerous sluices, would still prefer the route by the Cape of Good Hope. We see that the passage of the Sound is much frequented, notwithstanding the existence of the canal of the Eyder, which unites the ocean with the Baltic.

It would not be the same with the productions of Western America, or the merchandize which Europe sends to the coasts of Quito and Peru or the Pacific Ocean: these would cross the isthmus with less expense; and in time of war especially, with less danger, than by doubling the southern extremity of the new continent. In the present state of the roads, the conveyance of three hundred weight on mules from Panama to Portobello, costs three or four piastres. But

the rude state in which the government has left the isthmus is such, that the number of beasts of burden from Pauama to Cruces is much too small for the copper of Chili, the bark of Peru, and above all, the 70,000 fanegas of cocoa, which are annually exported from Guayaquil, to cross this slip of land; consequently, the slow, dangerous, and expensive navigation round Cape Horn is preferred.

In 1802 and 1803, when the English privateers everywhere hindered the commerce of Spain, a great part of the cocoa of Guayaquil was sent across the kingdom of New Spain, and shipped at Vera Cruz for Cadiz. The voyage from Guayaquil to Acapulco, and a land journey of a hundred and thirty-five leagues from Acapulco to Vera Cruz, was preferred to the danger of a long passage by Cape Horn, and the difficulty of struggling against the currents along the coasts of Peru and Chili. This example proves, that if the construction of a canal, either across the isthmus of Panama, or that of Huasacualco, should be accompanied with too many difficulties, on account of the multiplicity of the sluices, the commerce of Western America would gain prodigiously by good roads from Tehuantepec to the Embarcadero de la Cruz, and from Panama to Portobello. It is true that in the

Isthmus the pasturages are at present not favourable to the support and increase of cattle, but in so fertile a country, it would be easy to make savannahs by cutting down the forests, or to cultivate the *Paspalum purpureum*, the *Milium nigricans*, and particularly the Luzerne (*Medicago sativa*), which grows abundantly in Peru in the hottest parts. The introduction of camels would be a means still more calculated to diminish the expenses of conveyance. These land ships, as the Orientals call them, are at present to be found only in the province of Caraoas, where the Marquis of Toro introduced them from the Canaries.

No political consideration ought to oppose the progress of population, agriculture, commerce, and civilization in the isthmus of Panama. The more cultivated this tongue of land becomes, the more resistance it will oppose to a foreign enemy. If some enterprising nation wished to make itself master of the isthmus, it could more easily do so in its present state. There are numerous fine fortifications destitute of arms to defend them. The insalubrity of the climate, though already diminished at Portobello, renders a military enterprize in the Isthmus difficult. It is from Saint Charles de Chiloe, and not from Panama, that Peru can be attacked.

It would take three or four months to advance against the currents from Panama to Lima, whereas the navigation from Chili to Peru is easy and always rapid. Notwithstanding the disadvantages presented by the Isthmus, the possession of it is still of great importance to an enterprising nation. The whale fishery, which so far back as 1803, employed sixty English vessels in the South Sea, the facility of the trade with China, and the furs of Nootka Sound, are very seducing temptations ; they suffice, sooner or later, to attract the masters of the ocean towards a point of the globe, which nature seems to have destined to effect a change in the commercial system of nations.


VI. To the south-east of Panama, following the coasts of the Pacific, from Cape St. Michael to Cape Corrientes, we come to the small port of Cupica. The name of this bay has become celebrated in the kingdom of New Grenada, on account of a new plan for a communication between the two seas. From Cupica, we cross, for a distance of five or six sea leagues, a level tract* very well adapted for a canal, which would

* This information was communicated to me in 1803, by an inhabitant of Carthagena : but the geographical position of Cupica is as uncertain as that of

end at the Embarcadero of the Rio Naipi, or Naipipi. This latter river is navigable, and falls below the village of Zitara, into the Rio Atrato, which empties itself into the sea of the Antilles. Mr. Gogueneche, a very intelligent Biscayan pilot, has the merit of having first drawn the attention of the government to this bay of Cupica; he attempted to prove that it might become to the new world what Suez had antiently been to Asia. Mr. Gogueneche proposed to send all the cocoa of Guayaquil by the Naipi to Carthagena. The same channel offers the advantage of a very speedy communication between Cadiz and Lima. Instead of sending the mails by Carthagena, Santa-Fé, or Quito, or by Buenos Ayres, and Mendoza, the dispatches should be sent by the mouths of the Atrato to Cupica, and forwarded by little swift sailing packet-boats from Cupica to Peru. If this route had been opened, the viceroy of Lima would not sometimes have remained six months without receiving orders

the junction of the Naipi with the Atrato. I cannot find on any Spanish map the port of Cupica; but Puerto Quemado, or Tupica, in $7^{\circ} 15'$ latitude. It would be very important to know whether schooners can ascend from the mouth of the Atrato to the junction of the Naipi. It is to be hoped that all these points will be cleared up by observations made on the spot.

from his court. Besides, the environs of the bay of Cupica furnish fine timber, which might be sent to Lima. The tract lying between Cupica and the mouth of the Atrato, is perhaps the only place in the whole of America in which the chain of the Andes is wholly interrupted. To form an idea of this extraordinary depression of the western Cordillera of New Grenada, we must recollect that in the second degree of latitude, in the assemblage of mountains which contains the sources of the Rio Magdalena, the Andes divide into three chains. The most easterly extends, deviating towards the north-east, by Timana, Bogota, and Pemplona, to the snowy mountains of Merida : between lake Maracaybo and the city of Valencia, it joins the Cordillera, of the coast of Venezuela. The intermediate chain, that of Panama, Guanacas, and Quindiù, separates the longitudinal valley of the Rio Cauca from that of the Rio Magdalena. In the province of Antioquia, it joins the most westerly chain of New Grenada, which gradually disappears in the district of Choco, in latitude 7°, a little to the west of Zitara, between the left bank of the Atrato, and the shores of the Pacific. It would be interesting to know the configuration of the ground between Cape Garachine, or the Gulph of Saint Michael, and Cape Tiburon, especially towards the sources of the Rio Tuyra



and Chucunaque, or Chuchunque, that we might determine with precision where the mountains of the isthmus of Panama commence, the line of whose summits appears to be not above a hundred toises in height. The interior of Darfour is not more unknown to geographers than the damp, unwholesome, and woody tract which extends to the north-west of Betoï, and of the junction of the Bevara with the Atrato, towards the isthmus of Panama. All that we positively know at present is that between Cupica and the left bank of the Atrato, there is either a land strait (*detroitte terrestre*), or a total absence of any chain. The mountains of the isthmus of Panama, on account of their direction and geographical position, may be considered as a continuation of the mountains of the Antioquia and Choco; but in the plains to the west of the lower Atrato there is scarcely a ledge, or a slight barrier. Between the isthmus and the Cordillera of Antioquia, there is not a group of the mountains, interposed like that which indubitably connects (between Barquesimeto, Nirgua, and Valencia), the eastern chain of New Grenada, (La Sierra de la Suma Paz, and the Sierra Nevada de Merida), to the Cordillera of the coast of Venezuela.

VII. In the interior of the province of Choco, little ravine (Quebrada) of the Raspadura

unites the Rio de Noanama, vulgarly called the Rio Sant Juan, to the small river of Quibdo. This latter, augmented by the waters of the Andagueda and the Rio Zitara, forms the Rio Atrato, which falls into the sea of the Antilles, while the Rio San Juan empties itself into the Pacific. A very active monk, priest of the village of Novita, caused his parishioners to dig a little canal in the ravine of the Raspadura. By means of this canal, which is navigable during the rainy season, boats loaded with cocoa have passed from one sea to the other. Here then is an inland communication which has existed since 1788, and is unknown in Europe. The small canal of the Raspadura connects the coasts of the two oceans in two points above ninety-five leagues distant from each other. It will never be any thing more than a canal for boats; but it might be easily enlarged by joining to it the streams known by the name of Caño de las Animas, del Caliche, and Aguacclaras. Reservoirs and tributary channels are easily made in a country like Choco, where it rains all the year, and thunders every day. According to the information I obtained at Honda and Vilela, near Cali, from persons employed in the trade of the gold dust from Choco, the Rio Quibdo, which communicates with the canal of Mina de

Raspadura, unites, near the village of Quibdo, (vulgarly called Zitara) with the Rio Zitara and the Rio Andagueda; but, according to a manuscript map which I have just received from Choco, on which the canal of the Raspadura, likewise joins (in latitude $5^{\circ} 20'$) the Rio San Juan, and the Rio Quibdo, a little above the mine of Animas, the village of Quibdo is placed at the confluence of the small river of this name with the Rio Atrato which has received the Rio Andagueda, three leagues higher up near Lloro. From its mouth (lat. $4^{\circ} 6'$) to the south of the point of the Charambira, the great Rio San Juan receives successively, in ascending towards the N. N. E. the Rio Calima, the Rio del No, (above the village of Noanama) the Rio Tamana, which flows near Novita, the Rio Iro, the Quebrada de San Pablo, and lastly, near the village of Tado, the Rio de la Platina. The province of Choco is inhabited only on the banks of these rivers; it has commercial communications towards the north with Carthagena, by the Atrato, the banks of which are entirely deserted from latitude $60^{\circ} 45'$; towards the south with Guayaquil, and (before 1786) with Valparaiso, by the Rio San Juan; to the east with the province of Popayan, by the Tambo de Calima and by Cali. The ravine of the Raspa-

dura, which serves as a canal, and which I believe I was the first to make known in Europe, is often confounded on maps with the portage of Calima and of San Pablo. The Arastradero de San Pablo also leads to the Rio Quibdo, but several leagues above the mouth of the Raspadura. It is by the road from this Arastradero of San Pablo that goods are generally sent from Popayan by way of Cali, Tambo de Calima, and Novita to Choco del Norte, that is to say to Quibdo. It cannot be doubted that on any point of equinoctial America, whether in the isthmus of Choco, or those of Panama, Nicaragua, and Huasacualco, the union of two neighbouring ports by a canal, from four to six feet deep, (Canal en petite section) or by a river converted into a canal, would give rise to a very active commerce. This canal would act as a railway, and, however small, would animate and abridge the communications between the western American coasts and the United States, and Europe: but however advisable enterprizes of this kind may be, they never can have that powerful influence on the commerce of the two hemispheres that a real oceanic canal would have.

VIII. In ten degrees south latitude, two or

three days' journey from Lima, you come to the banks of the river Guallaga (or Huallaga) by which, without doubling Cape Horn, you may go to the coasts of the Grand Para in Brazil. The sources of the Rio Huanuco, which falls into the Guallaga, are distant, near Chinche, four or five leagues from the sources of the Huaura, which empties itself into the Pacific. Even the Rio Xauxa, which falls into the Apurimac or Ucayale, rises near Jauli, a short distance from the sources of the Rio Rimac, which traverses the city of Lima. The height of the Cordillera of Peru, and the nature of the ground, render the execution of a canal impossible; but the construction of a convenient road from the capital of Peru to the Rio Huanuco, would facilitate the conveyance of merchandize to Europe. The great rivers Ucayale and Guallaga, in five or six weeks, would bring the productions of Peru to the mouth of the Amazons, and to the coasts nearest to Europe, whereas a voyage of four months is required to carry the same goods to the same point, if they double Cape Horn. The cultivation of the beautiful regions on the eastern slope of the Andes, and the prosperity and riches of their inhabitants depend on a free navigation of the river of the Amazons. This liberty, which the court of Portugal denied to the

Spaniards, might have been acquired in consequence of the events preceding the peace of 1801.

IX. Before the coast of Patagonia was sufficiently explored, it was supposed that the gulph of Saint George, situated between 45° and 47° of south latitude, penetrated so far into the land as to communicate with the arms of the sea, which interrupt the continuity of the western coasts, that is to say the coast opposite to the Archipelago of Chayamapu. If this supposition were founded on a solid basis, vessels bound for the South Sea might cross South America, 175 leagues to the north of the straits of Magellan, and shorten their route above 700 leagues. Navigators would by this means avoid the dangers which, notwithstanding the improvements in the science of navigation, still attend the voyage round the Cape of Good Hope, and along the western coasts of Patagonia, from Cape Pilares to the parallel of the Chonos islands. In 1790 these ideas had attracted the attention of the court of Madrid. Gil Lemos, viceroy of Peru, an upright and zealous governor, sent a small expedition under Don Jose de Moraleda, to examine the southern coast of Chili. I have seen, in the instructions which he received at Lima, that he was enjoined to preserve the strictest secrecy, if he should be so fortunate as to discover

a communication between the two seas. Don Moraleda found in 1793 that the Estero of Aysen, which had been visited in 1763 by the Jesuits, Fathers Jose Garcia and Juan Vicuña, is of all the arms of the sea, that, by which the Pacific Ocean stretches the farthest to the east. This Estero however is not more than eight leagues long, and terminates abruptly near the isle of la Cruz, where it receives, near a hot spring, a river of small depth. This Estero de Aysen, situated in $45^{\circ} 28'$ of Latitude, is therefore eighty-eight leagues distant from the gulph of Saint George. This last gulph was accurately surveyed by the expedition of Malaspina. In 1746 another communication had been suspected in Europe between the bay of St. Julien (latitude $50^{\circ} 53'$) and the Pacific Ocean.

I have drawn upon one plate the nine points which seem to offer means of communication between the two seas, by uniting neighbouring rivers, either by canals or by roads which could facilitate the conveyance of goods to places where the rivers become navigable. It is for the government, which possesses the most beautiful and fertile part of the globe, to perfect what I have only been able to hint at in this essay. Two Spanish engineers, Messrs. Le Maur have laid down with much care the plan of the canal

of Los Guines, which was intended to cross the whole isle of Cuba, from the Batabano to the Havannah. A similar survey made in the isthmus of Guasacualco, at lake Nicaragua, between Cruces and Panama, and between Cupica and the Rio Naipi* would direct the statesman in his choice: he would learn whether it is in Mexico, in Nicaragua, or in Darien, that this grand enterprise should be executed, which would immortalize a government which should turn its attention to the true interests of humanity.

The long voyage round South America would then become less frequent; a road would be opened, if not for ships, at least for merchandize, which might go from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

When a canal shall unite the two oceans, the productions of Nootka Sound and China, will be brought above two thousand leagues nearer to

* The information which Major Alvarez lately communicated to Captain Cochrane, is not favourable to the utility of a canal between the Rio Naixo or Naipi, (which flows into the Atrato) and the bay of Cupica or Tupica. This traveller assures us that the Naipipi is full of bars, and that the isthmus between the river and the coasts of the Pacific, is traversed by three ranges of hills. (Vide, Captain Cochrane's travels in Columbia.)

Europe and the United States. Then, and not before, great changes will be effected in the political state of Eastern Asia; for this tongue of land, against which the waves of the Atlantic break, has been for ages the bulwark of the independence of China and Japan.

SKETCH

OF THE

LIFE OF JOHN LEWIS BURCKHARDT.

OF the numerous votaries whose lives have been sacrificed to the cause of African discovery, there is none whose loss is more to be regretted than the late Mr. Burckhardt. He was of an eminent family of Basle, but born at Lausanne: he was the eighth child of John Rodolph Burckhardt, commonly called Burckhardt of Kirschgarten. Our traveller's father, having been involved in danger and difficulty by the French revolution, was induced by regard for his personal safety to give up his prospects in life, and entered in a Swiss corps in the English pay, leaving his wife and family at Basle. Here his son Lewis Burckhardt was a daily witness of the miseries suffered under the French, which

inspired him at a very early age with a resolution never to bend under their yoke. It was his wish to serve in the army of some nation at war with France, but he was desirous of first completing his education, which, with the exception of two years in an establishment at Neuchatel, had been hitherto under the care of a person residing in his father's house.

In the year 1800, being then sixteen years of age, his father took him to the university of Leipsic, where he remained four years, and then removed to Göttingen. In both these places his exemplary conduct, distinguished talents, and zeal for knowledge, procured him universal esteem and respect, while the frankness and cheerfulness of his disposition made him particularly beloved by his intimate acquaintance. Leaving Göttingen in 1805, he returned to his father, and also paid a short visit to his mother at Basle. Unable to find upon the continent any nation which was not either subject to the French or in alliance with them, he resolved to come to England, and arrived in London in July 1806, bringing with him many letters of introduction, one of which was from Professor Bhumerbach to Sir Joseph Banks. The president having long been an active member of the committee of the African Association, Burckhardt became ac-

quainted in his house with some of the leading members ; and understanding from them that the Association was looking out for another traveller, he was induced to offer his services to Sir Joseph Banks and the Rev. Dr. Hamilton. The latter, who was acting secretary to the society, perceiving him to be undismayed by the strong representations of danger which it was particularly right to make to a person of his birth and education, and having found him admirably adapted to the undertaking by his natural and acquired talents, as well as by the vigour of his constitution, laid his offer before the Association at the next general meeting in May 1808. The offer having been willingly accepted, Mr. Burckhardt proceeded diligently to study the Arabic language, and those branches of science which would be most necessary in his new situation. He besides allowed his beard to grow, and assumed the oriental dress, to habituate himself to a costume so awkward to the wearer when first put on. In the intervals of his studies he exercised himself by long journies on foot, bare-headed in the heat of the sun, sleeping on the ground, and living upon vegetables and water. It was on the 25th of January 1809, that he received his instructions, of which the following is an outline. An intimate knowledge of Arabic

being the most important of all acquirements, he was directed to go first to Syria, where he might at the same time study the language where it is spoken with great purity, and accustom himself to oriental manners, at a distance from the countries which were to be the scene of his future researches. He was to remain two years in Syria, then to proceed to Cairo, whence he was to accompany the Fezzan caravan to Mourzouk by the same route that Hornemann had followed. That town was to be the point of his departure for the interior of Africa.

Burckhardt sailed from Cowes on the 2d of March 1809, on board a merchant ship, and arrived at Malta in the middle of April. From that place he addressed two letters to Sir Joseph Banks. At Malta he assumed a dress resembling the Syrian costume, but yet sufficiently different to shew that he did not mean to pass himself off as a native. He, in fact, gave himself out as an Indian Mahometan merchant, proceeding to Aleppo with dispatches from the East-India Company to Mr. Barker, British Consul and agent to the Company in that city. It being absolutely necessary, on account of the intercourse between the Moorish merchants and Malta, that Burckhardt should keep his travelling plans very secret, it was rather unfortunate that a Swiss

regiment, in the English service, to many of the officers of which he was personally known, was then in garrison at Malta. He was therefore very cautious in going abroad; and though he stayed about two months, he was not recognized. When he reached Aleppo, he consulted with Mr. Barker whether he should continue in his disguise or appear as an European. After a long conversation on the subject, he was convinced that the purpose of his stay in Aleppo would be best promoted by adopting the latter. A few days after his arrival in Aleppo, he was attacked by a violent inflammatory fever, which continued a fortnight. After that, he enjoyed good health, and found the climate to agree with him better than he had expected. Burckhardt remained two years and a-half in Syria, daily increasing his knowledge of the Arabic language and of Oriental manners and character. He resided chiefly at Aleppo, and continued to bear in Syria the name of Ibrahim Ibn Abdallah, which he had assumed at Malta. Neither this nor his half Turkish dress could excite any suspicion. English travellers in Syria frequently doing the same, not for the sake of concealment, but to avoid occasional insult. By this means he had the advantage of free intercourse with the Mahometan inhabitants of Aleppo

while he was not debarred from openly accepting the friendship of Mr. Barker, or from enjoying the society to be found in the houses of the European residents.

Besides two short tours, which he made from Aleppo, he was absent from it in 1810, for six months, during which he visited Palmyra, stopped three months at Damascus, whence he made two journies into the neighbouring districts, one though Lebanos and Anti-Lebanos, and the other through the Haouran. He finally left Aleppo in February 1812, after which he again made some stay at Damascus and performed a second journey in the Haouran, including a part of the Decapolis. On his way from Damascus to Egypt, he visited Tiberias and Nazareth crossed to the east side of the Jordan, traversed the countries to the east and south of the Dead Sea, and arrived at Wady Mousa, where he had the satisfaction of discovering the ruins of a large antient city, consisting of numerous buildings hewn in the rocks, which, added to the testimony of antient history, shews it to have been Petra, the antient capital of Arabia Petræa. From this place he proceeded westward, across the valley of Araba, and the desert of El Tyh, to the capital of Egypt.

As soon as Mr. Burekhardt arrived at Cairo, he proceeded to draw up a particular account of his journey from Damascus, for the information of the Association. Soon after his arrival at Cairo, an opportunity offered itself of visiting the interior of Africa, which a less considerate traveller would probably have embraced. There was a small caravan just on the point of returning from Cairo to some of the northern countries of the Great Desert, which was the precise route by which it was intended that Mr. Burckhardt should commence his travels towards the countries situated on the Niger. In his letter to the secretary of the Association, he very candidly states his reasons for not availing himself of this opportunity. The chief were, that he had not had time to prepare himself to set out with this caravan, that he had no introduction, and, above all, that he was too little acquainted with Egyptian and African manners, to flatter himself with being able to remain undiscovered. Besides, as he very justly observed, hasty steps are the ruin of the traveller's health as well as of his plans, and it would have been rashness to set out on such a journey before he had recovered from the fatigues of the one he had just finished, and without the slightest acquaint-

tance with the people to whom he must have confided his fortunes. His reasons were entirely approved by the Association.

In order, however, that the delay of his expedition to Fezzan might be made advantageous to African geography in another quarter, he resolved to set out in December 1812, for Upper Egypt, with the intention of passing the first cataract, and following the course of the river by the second and third cataracts towards Dongola. The tranquillity that then prevailed in Egypt, under the government of Mahomet Ali Pacha, greatly facilitated this enterprise; but the Mamelukes being established at Dongola, he had no notion of proceeding farther than to about five or six days' journey from that town. He hoped however that he might make some lateral excursions into the Nubian Desert. Besides the new information that he might obtain on this tour, he also calculated on obtaining a knowledge of the character of the negro nations, and of the dealers in slaves, which would prove of great advantage in his intended travels into the interior.

The first part of the journey sketched out in the preceding paragraph was performed exactly as Mr. Burckhardt had expected; but the lateral excursion into the Nubian Desert proved far

more important and interesting than he had ventured to anticipate, for he succeeded in penetrating to the banks of the Astaboras, and thence crossed the desert to Souakin on the coast of the Red Sea. This, and the preceding journey along the Nile, towards Dongola, were the only travels in the unexplored regions of the interior of Africa, which he was destined to perform ; but they led to a tour in Arabia, in which he acquired information no less interesting, and scarcely less original, than that which he collected in his journey in Nubia.

These travels, and a long residence in Upper Egypt, in the interval between his two Nubian journies, occupied two years and a-half ; but this did not cause him to lose an opportunity of forwarding the grand object of penetrating into the interior of Africa, in the intended direction, since no caravan left Egypt for the western country during the whole of his absence from Cairo.

Mr. Burckhardt left Cairo the 11th of January 1813, and in twelve days reached Siout ; having viewed on his way the southern pyramids and the antiquities of Beni Hassan, Shikh Abade and Ashmouncyn ; having remained ten days at Siout, he proceeded southwards, and in sixteen days more reached Esne, which being the

last place of note in Upper Egypt, he there made the necessary preparations for his journey to Nubia. On the 22d of February he arrived at Assouan, to which place he returned on the 31st of March, having in the interval proceeded as far as 'Tinareh, a small castle, the chief place in the country of Mahass, and between 430 and 450 miles from Assouan. About 50 miles below Derr, the chief place in Nubia, situated 150 miles from Assouan, he had the pleasure of meeting with two English travellers, Messrs. Legh and Smelt, returning down the Nile from an excursion to Ibrim. He returned to Esne in the beginning of April, and wrote from that place a letter to the Association, giving an account of his proceedings after his departure from Cairo; together with the journal of his observations. He apologises for the rude state in which it appears, "having been written in a miserable court-yard, by the side of my camel, under the influence of the hot Kamsin winds." A violent inflammation in his left eye was rendered worse by writing. In his first letter from Esne, dated May 2, 1813, he expressed his intention of going with a caravan to the frontiers of Abyssinia before he set out on his western tour; but said, he should not make any stay in Abyssinia, not thinking himself qualified to

travel in that country. Hostilities in the interior prevented our traveller from setting out as he had hoped; and in another letter from Esne of the 14th October 1813, he expresses a hope of being able to proceed in about three weeks to Massuah, whence he meant to cross the Red Sea to the Arabian coast, and to return to Cairo by the Hedjaz.

The same causes of delay continued however to operate during the next four months, and it was not till March 2, 1814, that the caravan finally quitted Upper Egypt. During the long intervals which Mr. B. was so unwillingly obliged to pass at Esne, he continued to wear the dress of a poor Mahometan trader, taking care to be as little known or noticed as possible. Among the suspicious, cruel, and treacherous Mussulman nations which he traversed, after leaving Daraou, it was difficult to find opportunities of continuing his journal, nor could he send any intelligence to the Association, till having safely reached the port of Souakin on the Red Sea, he crossed over to Djidda in Arabia, where he wrote a letter, dated August 7, 1814, to Sir Joseph Banks, giving a general outline of his adventures.

From this time nearly a year elapsed before any farther information was received from him

by his employers, his next letter to Sir Joseph Banks being dated from Cairo, 25th June 1815. In this letter he gives the unfortunate intelligence of his having suffered repeated, and long continued attacks of illness, especially a fever which had detained him three months at Medina, and, as he says, had nearly put a stop to all farther travels. He was still suffering under its effects when he reached Cairo, where however he was so happy as to find letters from Mr. Hamilton and Sir Joseph Banks, which he declares had contributed, more than medicines could do, to revive his strength and exhilarate his spirits. He had been apprehensive that his journey in Arabia might not perhaps entirely meet the approbation of his employers, and the assurance that they were entirely satisfied, as they had well reason to be, with his labours, was a source of heartfelt joy to him, and relieved his mind from the despondency which his bodily sufferings had occasioned. His expressions of gratitude to Sir Joseph Banks are highly honourable to himself, while they do justice to the elevated sentiments of the venerable president.

Though the state of his health did not allow him, at this time, to give more than a faint outline of his travels in Arabia, it appeared, in

the sequel, that he had made excellent use of his time. His journal, subsequently transmitted to the Association, contains the most accurate and complete account of the Hedjaz, including the cities of Mecca and Medina, that has ever reached Europe. His knowledge of the Arabic language, and of the manners of the Mahometans, was so complete, that he was able to reside at Mecca, during the whole of the pilgrimage, and to pass through all the ceremonies usual on that occasion, without exciting any suspicion as to his real character. Nay, the Pacha of Egypt, Mahomet Ali, whose head-quarters were then at Tayf, to the east of Mecca, having thought fit to put his qualifications, as a Mussulman, to the test, by ordering two of the most learned professors of the law to examine him on his knowledge of the Koran, and of the leading articles of their faith, he completely convinced his examiners, that he was not only a true, but very learned Mussulman. He was firmly convinced that the title of Hadji, which his pilgrimage to Mecca, gave him a right to assume, would be of the greatest use to him, in his intended travels in the interior of Africa. In this he was probably right; but, notwithstanding the importance of the experience and information which he acquired in Arabia, they must be considered as

having been too dearly purchased, as his constitution seems never to have recovered from the severe attacks of fever and dysentery, which he suffered in the fatal climate of Arabia, and which, were doubtless the chief cause of the fatal termination of the disorder that two years afterwards finished at once his labours and his life, and destroyed the best founded hopes of exploring the unknown regions of Africa.

During the nine succeeding months, Mr. Burckhardt's attention was chiefly devoted to the restoring of his impaired strength, and to the preparation of his journals in Nubia and Arabia, for the Association. Not finding his recovery so speedy as his physicians had given him reason to expect, he resolved to go to Alexandria, where the sea air, the kind attention of Colonel Missett, and the friendly assistance of Dr. Meryon, physician to Lady Hester Stanhope, whom her ladyship had sent to attend the Colonel, effected his convalescence.

The Moggrebyn caravan, with which he was to go into the interior, did not arrive, and we find him expressing his fears, in a letter, Feb. 18, 1816, that he should be detained still longer in Egypt. The plague having manifested itself at Cairo, Mr. Burckhardt, unwilling to shut himself up like the Franks, or to expose himself to the disease, re-

solved on making an excursion to Mount Sinai, for which he set out on the 20th of April, 1816, and returned the 14th of June, about the time when the infection usually ceases. In a letter, dated Cairo, 1st July, he gives a sketch of this tour. Still, however, he had no prospects of speedily setting out on his grand expedition, and this delay, so vexations in itself, was not only a severe trial of his patience, but excited in him apprehensions that his prolonged stay in Egypt might be falsely interpreted in England, by those to whom he was not personally known. On his return to Cairo, 14th of June, Mr. Salt delivered to him a couple of pocket compasses, and a letter from his mother, which the Association had forwarded to him. This was most gratifying to him. "I can find no terms," he says, "to express my thanks for your kindness, in informing my mother of my welfare, and of the satisfaction which my services have caused my employers. Next to the desire of contenting the latter, that of contributing to the happiness of my mother is the most fervent I have in this world; so flattering a testimony as that which came from you, could not fail to excite in her heart very lively emotions, and has created in mine sentiments of lasting heartfelt gratitude towards their authors." In this letter, Mr. Burckhardt speaks of the intention formed by Mr. Salt and

himself, of sending to England the fine head of Memnon, and offering it in their joint names, to the British Museum, of which it is now a distinguished ornament, and where it will never be contemplated by those acquainted with the facts, without a sigh to the memory, not only of Mr. Burckhardt, but of another much lamented traveller, the frank-hearted, disinterested, and ill-requited Belzoni, who contrived the machines by which this colossus was removed.

The excursion to Mount Sinai was the last journey which Mr. Burckhardt accomplished. From the time of his return to Cairo in June 1816, to that of his death in October 1817, he continued to reside in the Egyptian capital, occupied in preparing various papers for the Association, and in other employments connected with Arabic literature, and his travelling pursuits. The letters which he addressed during this period to the Committee show how deeply he felt the disappointment, caused by the non-arrival of any caravan from the interior, by the return of which he might have proceeded upon the ultimate object of his mission.

In his subsequent letters, down to 5th June, 1817, he communicates various and interesting information to the Association. Though in some

measure consoled by the repeated assurances he received, that his employers were satisfied with him, and imputed no blame whatever to him for a delay which they were well convinced was no less contrary to his wishes than their own, it is evident that it preyed upon his spirits. "I am conscious" he says, "that I put their patience to a severe trial, but mine is put to the torture." At length a favourable opportunity seemed to be approaching, to realise all his hopes, and put him in the way of reaping the fruits of his previous labours.

In the Hadj of the year 1817, among the pilgrims collected at Mecca from every part of the Mussulman world, was a party of Moggrebyns, or western Africans, who were expected to return home as usual, by the way of Cairo and the Fezzan: it was believed that the caravan would take its departure from Egypt in the month of December. As Mr. Burckhardt had now transmitted to England the last of his papers relating to his former journeys, it was with the utmost satisfaction, that he contemplated the prospect, which at length so opportunely offered, of putting the great purpose of his mission into execution. Feeling strongly armed, in his long previous course of study and experience, he entertained hopes, not more

sanguine, than reasonable, of being able to penetrate in safety from Fezzan to the countries of the Niger; and of at last receiving the reward of his long perseverance, in the acquirement for the public, of some authentic information, upon the unknown regions of Africa. But the Divine Providence ordained otherwise. On the 4th of October, he found the symptoms of dysentery, which had for several days incommoded him, so much increased, that he applied to Dr. Richardson, an English physician, who fortunately happened at that time to be at Cairo, travelling in the company of Lord Belmore. Thus it is a satisfaction to know, that our lamented traveller, in his last illness, had as good advice and assistance as medicine could supply. The disease however, in spite of all the remedies administered, continued its progress from bad to worse, with fatal obstinacy, and without any favourable remission. On the morning of the 15th, conscious of his danger, he proposed and obtained the consent of his physician, that Mr. Salt, His Majesty's Consul General, should be sent for. "I went over immediately," says Mr. Salt, in a letter to the Secretary of the Association, "and cannot describe how shocked I was, to see the change which had taken place in so short a time. On

measure consoled by it received, that his enemies had deceived him, and imputed to him for a delay which it was no less contrary to his own, it is evident that "I am conscious" of his patience to a severe torture." At length he seemed to be approaching his hopes, and put him to the fruits of his previous

In the Hadj of the grims collected at Mecca, the Mussulman world, whether eastern or western Africans, were to turn home as usual, by the Fezzan: it was here that he would take its departure in the month of December. He now transmitted to Legation papers relating to his former with the utmost satisfaction contemplated the prospect, which fortunately offered, of putting to of his mission into execution. He armed, in his long previous experience, he entertain

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the Tuesday before, he had been walking in my garden with every appearance of health, and conversing with his usual liveliness and vigour : now, he could scarcely articulate his words, often made use of one for another, was of a ghastly hue, and had all the appearance of approaching death. Yet he perfectly retained his senses, and was surprisingly firm and collected. He desired that I would take pen and paper, and write down what he should dictate. The following is nearly word for word what he said : ' If I should now die, I wish you to draw upon Mr. Hamilton for two hundred and fifty pounds, for money due to me from the Association, and together with what I have in the hands of Mr. Boghoz, (two thousand piastres), make the following disposition of it. Pay up my share of the Memnon head, (this he afterwards repeated, as if afraid that I should think he had already contributed enough, as I had once hinted to him). Give two thousand piastres to Osman (an Englishman, whom at Shikh Ibrahim's* particular request, I had persuaded the Pasha to release from slavery). Give four hundred piastres to Shaharti my servant. Let

* From the time of his departure from Aleppo, Mr. Turckhardt had continued to pass by this name.

my male and female slaves, and whatever I have in the house, which is little, go to Osman. Send one thousand piastres to the poor at Zurich. Let my whole library, with the exception of my European books, go to the University of Cambridge, to the care of Dr. Clarke, the librarian ; comprising also the manuscripts in the hands of Sir Joseph Banks. My European books' (they were only eight in number) 'I leave to you' (Mr. Salt). 'Of my papers make such a selection as you think fit, and send them to Mr. Hamilton for the African Association ; there is nothing on Africa. I was starting in two months time with the caravan returning from Mecca, and going to Fezzan, thence to Tombuctou, but it is otherwise disposed. For my affairs in Europe, Mr. Rapp has my will.* Give my love to my friends (enumerating several persons, with whom he was living upon

* This refers to a will made previous to his departure from England, according to which, in case he had advanced into the interior of Africa, and was not heard of by the 1st of January, 1820, he was to be considered as dead. By this will, after shewing his gratitude to a relation, to whom he had been indebted while at Leipzig, he appointed his mother residuary legatee for all sums which might accrue to him, from his engagements with the African Association.

terms of intimacy at Cairo). 'Write to Mr. Barker.'—(He then paused, and seemed troubled, and at length with great exertion said,) 'Let Mr. Hamilton acquaint my mother with my death, and say that my last thoughts have been with her.' (This subject he had evidently kept back, as not trusting himself with the mention of it until the last). 'The Turks,' he added, 'will take my body, I know it, perhaps you had better let them.'—When I tell you that he lived only six hours after this conversation, you will easily conceive what an effort it must have been. The expression of his countenance when he noticed his intended journey, was an evident struggle between disappointed hopes, and manly resignation. Less of the weakness of human nature was perhaps never exhibited upon a death bed. Dr. Richardson and Osman, who has for some time lived with him, were both present at this conversation. He ended by expressing a wish that I should retire, and shook my hand at parting, as taking a final leave. So unhappily it proved; he died at a quarter before twelve the same night, without a groan. The funeral, as he desired, was Mahomedan, conducted with all proper regard to the respectable rank which he had held in the eyes of the natives. Upon this

point I had no difficulty in deciding, after his own expression on the subject. The Arabic manuscripts for the University of Cambridge are in a large chest, and shall be forwarded by the first safe opportunity, together with his papers, which are few, and appear to be chiefly copies of what I believe him to have already transmitted."

As a traveller, he possessed talents and acquirements which were rendered doubly useful by his qualities as a man. To the fortitude and ardour of mind, which had stimulated him to devote his life to the advancement of science, in the paths of geographical discovery, he joined a temper and prudence, well calculated to ensure his triumph over every difficulty. His liberality and high principles of honour, his admiration of those generous qualities in others, his detestation of injustice and fraud, his disinterestedness and keen sense of gratitude* were

* His present to the University of Cambridge, of the choicest collection of Arabic manuscripts in Europe, was intended as a mark of his gratitude, for the literary benefits, and the kind attention which he received at Cambridge, when preparing himself for his travels. Of his disregard of pecuniary matters, and his generous feeling toward those who were dear to him, a single

no less remarkable, than his warmth of heart and active benevolence, which he often exercised towards persons in distress, to the great prejudice of his limited means. No stronger example can easily be given of sensibility united with greatness of mind, than the feelings which he evinced on his death bed, when his mother's name, and the failure of the great object of his travels, were the only subjects upon which he could not speak without hesitation. By the African Association his loss is severely felt, nor can they easily hope to supply the place of one whom birth, education, genius, and industry, conspired to render well adapted to whatever great enterprize his fortitude and honourable ambition might have prompted him to undertake. The strongest testimony of their approbation of his zealous services is due from his employers, to their late regretted traveller: but

example will be sufficient. His father having bequeathed at his death about ten thousand pounds, to be divided into five equal parts, one to his widow, and one to each of his children, Lewis Burckhardt immediately gave up his portion, to increase that of his mother. If, he said, I perish in my present undertaking, the money will be where it ought to be; if I return to England, my employers will undoubtedly find me some means of subsistence.

it is from the public and from posterity, that his memory will receive its due reward of fame; for it cannot be doubted that his name will be held in honourable remembrance, as long as any credit is given to those who have fallen in the cause of science.

